THE
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THE POLITICAL OUTLOOK IN THE NEAR EAST.

During this month a series of political events has taken place in the Near East which seem to have smoothed many of the knotty questions perpetually hanging over the horizon of that part of the world, and to have brought about a general disposition for friendly understandings such as has never probably been marked before.

The Austro-Russian tension which has been the most disquieting factor in the peace of the Near East since the annexation of Bosnia-Erzegovina in October 1908 was relieved, and friendly Diplomatic relations between the two Powers resumed. This has not only allowed to take place the somewhat solemn consecration of the "traditional brotherly ties" between Russia and the Southern Slavs, without provoking the suspicion and anger of the Austrian Lion, but it brought about an approval from the latter quarters, and a declaration that all is done for the maintenance of peace.

In the beginning of the month King Ferdinand accompanied by his prime Minister, the Minister for Foreign affairs and a large attendance visited Russia where he was warmly received by the Czar and the population. During their stay in St. Petersburg the King and the Bulgarian Ministers had the opportunity to receive many marks of sympathy and friendship on the part of all classes, and especially the Panslavistic circles, but also warnings from the Czar's Government that they must keep quiet and work for the peace of the Near East if they wish to enjoy the sympathy of Russia. These counsels have greatly contributed to appease the exaggerated hopes of the Bulgarian Statesmen and the somewhat bellicose disposition they have shown during the first days of their stay in the Russian Capital, and to bring about a definite decision on the part of King Ferdinand to visit the Sultan in Constantinople.

This visit was undertaken with the object of removing any misapprehensions which the Turkish Government may have conceived and of contributing to the establishment of permanent friendly relations between Bulgaria and Turkey which constitute the basis of Russia's peaceful policy in the Balkans at the present time. The reception accorded to King Ferdinand, at Constantinople was marked by an affected cordiality on the part of the authorities, but with undisguised coolness on the part of the population; and this for obvious reasons. The Turks had fresh in their minds, the humiliation they had to undergo by accepting the daring declaration of the independence of their formal vassal State, and the definite annexation by it of Eastern Roumalia, while the Greeks could not forget the horrible atrocities committed only three years ago by the constitutional subjects of King Ferdinand on the innocent Greek population of Bulgaria, and also the criminal acts initiated by the Bulgarians in Macedonia and Thrace during the last ten years. The visit nevertheless has its comparative good results by consolidating the normal relations lately established between the two States, and by providing a personal exchange of views for the settlement of some important contro-

versial questions, such as the conclusion of a new commercial treaty, and the delimination of the disputed territories on the frontiers, which will remove many causes of friction and pave the way for more friendly relations in future.

Similar visits to Constantinople on the part of the other two Southern Slav rulers, King Peter of Servia and Prince Nicolas of Montenegro, are planned by Russia, which we hope will greatly contribute to the more friendly intercourse between Turkey and the other Balkan States.

In Greece the political situation has improved so much during this month that no further fears of troubles and complications are entertained even in the most pessimistic quarters, and there is every reason to believe that normal conditions will be restored, and the evolution of the reform movement will follow its course without any violent shocks. On the 3rd instant the Chamber adopted the proposal for the convocation of the National Assembly, and voted the clauses of the Constitution which are to be revised by this Assembly. After the passing of some important and urgent bills, amongst which are the financial provisions for raising a loan of 150,000,000-240,000,000 drachms to carry out the reforms, and the measures for the purification of the different branches of the Administration from their unworthy elements, the session of the Chamber was brought to an end on the 27th, when the Royal decree convoking the National Assembly was solemnly read by the King and the dissolution of the Military League publicly proclaimed.

In Turkey the internal situation is far from reassuring. The same old methods of corruption, and misrule continue to prevail in Constantinople as well as in the provinces, without an iota of improvement. In many places matters are even worse than before the proclamation of the Constitution.

THE GREEK ROYAL PROCLAMATION.

The following is the text of the Royal Proclamation :—

Gentlemen.— "The circumstances in which you were convoked in extraordinary session are well known to you. You have been summoned to work, in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution, on a task of reform destined to render effective the provisions of the Constitution, both as regards home and foreign affairs. The agitation unexpectedly provoked by a painful national obstacle has continued since the middle of August. The grave political crisis was tending to a dead-lock, for an irregular action showed that the will of public opinion, which had been inflamed, was to force a change in political methods with a view to restoring the course of the country's affairs and strengthening the *régime* with which the national aspirations are indissolubly bound up. There appeared to be but one way out. This was indicated to me, when the Cabinet resigned, by all the political leaders assembled round the Throne. Gentlemen, I am happy to say that Parliamentary opinion almost unanimously shared this view, as is shown by the decision on February 18 (O.S.), by which the Chamber adopted the proposal put forward for the revision of the non-fundamental clauses of the Constitution.

I promise that this decision shall be carried out. A Royal Decree based on the proposals of my responsible advisers will summon a revisionist Chamber, as provided for in Clause 107 of the Constitution, which shall determine the clauses to be revised. Gentlemen, I express to you my Royal thanks for the noble zeal and devotion to your country and my dynasty with which you are inspired, for the accomplishment of your labours in the course of this extraordinary session. You have thus seconded my Government in its efforts for the definitive restoration of the affairs of the country, and the return to us of the peace necessary for the welfare of the nation."

The Manifesto of the Military League.

The Military League declares that the issue of the Royal proclamation convoking a National Assembly for the revision of the Constitution puts the crown on the labours of the army and fleet for the regeneration of the country. The League, nevertheless, is not under the illusion that its work is accomplished. On the contrary, it recognizes how small are the results of the revolution, and how much remains to be achieved. While admitting, however, that the greater part of the reform programme remains unfulfilled, the League feels bound to declare that all political factors without exception have endeavoured to paralyse "a bloodless and high-souled revolution" which was but the outpouring of 50 years of national distress over terrible and manifold humiliations. The nation and history will pass their verdict on the conduct of each of them. The League, considering that moderation was imposed upon it by circumstances, and believing that those responsible for the situation were also its victims, pursued the work of reform with austerity and determination, but in such a way as to admit repentance on the part of those attached to the existing state of things. It may have erred in this, but it believes that its moderation served the interests of Hellenism. The League, considering that it is incumbent on the officers of the army and fleet to return to their duties, and believing that no attempt will be made to disturb its work, declares that after the Royal proclamation it regards the interference of the army in political affairs as at an end. In view of the difficulties, however, and the opposition with which it has been confronted during the last seven months, the League invites the close attention of the Greek nation to every act which may affect its future, and expresses the conviction that after the dissolution to-day the army will remain a watchful guardian of its own honour and of national aspirations.

Turkish Atrocities in Epirus.

The intolerable situation created by the corrupt, unscrupulous and blindly chauvinistic Turkish functionaries in Epirus, to which we alluded in our last issue, is confirmed by the "Times" Correspondent in the Balkan Peninsula, who on the 13th instant, sent the following message to his journal.

Notwithstanding the distractions of the internal situation, the public mind here is seriously concerned with the unfortunate situation in Epirus brought about by the application of the projected law for the suppression of brigandage. The country is being scoured by military detachments, which carry out perquisitions for arms in the villages, maltreating peasants and compelling mayors to sign compromising documents, of the contents of which they are ignorant. In several instances torture is said to have been applied. The Christian notables in Yanina, including the members of the communal committees and the presidents of the trade guilds, have addressed a petition to the Sultan, the Grand Vizier, and the

Presidents of the Senate and Chamber, complaining of the wholesale arrests of Christians on mere suspicion, 300, persons being already imprisoned in Yanina. An epidemic of small-pox has broken out in the prison. Among the prisoners are nine priests. Notwithstanding the good intentions of the Vali, the petition states, arrests are carried out in circumstances of great cruelty, and prisoners are subjected to tortures such as were unknown even during the Absolutist *régime*. The petition, which gives instances of these atrocities, assures the Sultan of the loyalty of the population, and implores his Majesty to put a stop to the application of the law of brigandage and to give orders that the imprisoned persons should receive prompt justice.

The effort to arouse Moslem fanaticism by means of forged letters describing a pretended conspiracy among the Christians has caused great alarm, the latter, who, especially after the publication of the letters in the journal *Tanin*, feared that arrests on a still more extensive scale would follow. The victim in this case is an old man named Baicousi, a Greek subject, among whose letters false documents were inserted. In addition to two commissaries of police, two Customs officials have been arrested in connexion with this affair, which is believed to have been arranged by a number of local Chauvinists. As an instance of the manner in which justice is dispensed by the military authorities the following case may be cited. A wedding in the village of Sadovitza was celebrated in accordance with immemorial usage by a *feu de joie*. In consequence the officiating priest, two notables of the village, and a *garde champêtre* named Luke were thrown into prison, where they are stated to have been maltreated, Luke being lamed for life. They were then brought before a Court-martial, which condemned the priest to five years' imprisonment, the two notables to seven, and Luke to ten. The justice and moderation of Zihni Pasha, the Vali, are universally admitted, but he appears unable to stem the tide of military Chauvinism.

GLADSTONE AND GREECE.

II.

The Don Pacifico Case.

In the previous article we stated that we shall continue our study on Gladstone's policy towards Greece following the chronological order of the facts.

The first occasion on which Gladstone pleaded for Greece was in 1850 and is known as the Don Pacifico case which arose in England a great deal of interest and was much discussed in both Houses of Parliament but especially in the House of Commons. This was perhaps the most important debate during this session, and one in which the whole foreign policy of Lord Russel's Government was virtually challenged.

The facts lay in a comparatively small compass.

The Greek Government having refused to afford compensation in response to various demands, "doubtful in point of justice, or exaggerated in amount" (1) which the British Government had made on account of the claims of specified British subjects, Admiral Sir William Parker was directed to proceed to Athens for the purpose of obtaining satisfaction. The Greek Government refused to pay the exorbitant sum demanded by a Mediterranean Jew who happened to be a British subject and who had suffered some loss his house being sacked on Easter day 1847 (2) by a fanatical mob. Failing this Piraeus was blockaded by the British Fleet and a number of Greek vessels was peremptorily seized. This high handed proceeding produced dissatisfaction in certain quarters in England, the policy being condemned as unworthy of the dignity and discreditable to the reputation of a Power like Great Britain. (3) In the House of Lords upon a resolution moved by Lord Hanley, the Government found themselves in a minority of thirty-seven. The situation was further complicated owing to the action of the French Government (*) which protested against this violent policy of England and withdrew the French Minister from London. Let us in this place pay a tribute to France for the friendly attitude it has always displayed towards Greece up to the present, and to express our regret to see this democratic nation take in the last development of the Cretan question, an attitude quite inconsistent with her traditions. But *sic transit gloria mundis*—undoubtedly the financial interests have now overriden the sentiments of justice and human duty. Thus the debates which opened with the Greek question took a wider scope which eventually included the relations of Great Britain with France. The fall of the Whig Cabinet was considered a natural consequence unless the Lower House should reverse the condemnation of the House of Lords.

Lord Palmerston whose policy as Foreign Minister was thus assailed before the great debate in the House of Commons came on and tendered an explanation of the circumstances attending the withdrawal of the French Minister in London and related the proceedings which had taken place between the two Governments. Mr. Roebuck came to the defence of the Government by proposing the following motion:—"that the "principles which have hitherto regulated the foreign "policy of her Majesty's Government, are such as were "regarded to preserve untarnished the honour and "dignity of this country, and in times of unexampled "difficulty, the best calculated to maintain peace "between England and the various nations of the "world."

It was on the 24th of June that the great debate commenced. It lasted about four nights. Brilliant speeches were delivered on both sides. Sir Robert Peel delivered a powerful speech against Ministers. This speech is memorable not only for its oratorical excellence and brilliancy but also because it was the last speech that the ill-fated statesman delivered. Mr. Cockburn, Mr. Cobden and Mr. Disraeli delivered powerful speeches. Lord Palmerston defended his policy energetically in a speech which lasted nearly five hours. And challenged the verdict of the House "whether the Foreign policy of Her Majesty's Ministers had been proper and fitting and whether, as a subject of ancient Rome could hold himself free from indignity by saying *Civis Romanus sum*, a British Subject could not be protected by the vigilant eye and the strong arm of Great Britain against injustice and wrong." We shall try to show that no injustice was done in this case. The best way to demonstrate the situation is to summarise and in some instances give the text of Gladstone's speech, report partly the speeches of the Hon. Members on both sides who took part in the

(1) Resolution of the House of Lords, *see* Hansard's Parliamentary Debates, vol. C. xii, p. 102.

(2) It was customary in Greece on Easterday to burn a figure representing a Jew. This to vindicate the crucification of Jesus. Baron Rothschild was at Athens at that time and out of deference to the feelings of that gentleman it was determined that the usual ceremony should be dispensed with. By the adoption of this step on the part of the Greek Authorities, Baron Rothschild was made the innocent cause of the injury done to Pacifico. Sir E. Lyons, the British Minister in Athens in a message described the proceedings as being instigated by brigands who persuaded the mob that some Pacifico was the cause for the prevention of the ceremonies and induced the mob to sack his house so that the brigands should plunder it, as it was thought that he was very rich—he was a moneylender or furniture dealer.

(3) G. B. Smith. The Life of the R. H. W. G. Gladstone, vol. i. p. 192.

(*) Russia and France offered their good offices.

debates so as to illustrate what was the atmosphere and pshychological conditions of the House of Commons and what were the feelings, of some of the Honourable Members, friendly or not to the Whig Government, towards Greece.

Gladstone had not yet acquired the parliamentary ascendency Palmerston possessed yet the House felt that in the image of our ancient critic, here was no cistern of carefully collected rainwater, but the cautious flow of a living spring. Now for the first time he made the appeal so often repeated by him to the common sentiments of the civilised world, to the general and fixed convictions of mankind, to the principles of brotherhood among nations, to their sacred independence, to the equality in their rights of the weak with the strong. Such was his language. "When we are asking for the maintenance of the rights that belong to our fellow-subjects resident in Greece, he said, '*let us do as we would be done by*,' let us pay all respect to a feeble State and to the infancy of free institutions, which we should desire and should exact from others towards their authority and strength."†

Gladstone had not read history for nothing. He was not a Christian for nothing. He knew the evils that followed in Europe the breakdown of the great spiritual power once, though with so many defects, a controlling force over violence, anarchy and brute wrong. He knew the necessity for some substitute, even a substitute so imperfect as the law of nations, "You may call the rule of nations vague and untrustworthy" he exclaimed; "I find in it, on the contrary "a great and noble monument of human wisdom, "founded on the combined dictates of sound experience, "a precious inheritance bequeathed to us by the generations that have gone before us, and a firm foundation "on which we must take care to build whatever it may "be our part to add to their acquisition, if indeed we "wish to promote the peace and welfare of the world." Before proceeding further with Gladstone's speech let us be allowed to expose the facts of the case and the general principles of the Law of nations and their bearings on the question of the regulation of the relations of the subjects of a Power domiciled in a foreign country.

Sir. F. Thesiger, in his splendid speech, discussed this point and referred to such an authority as Vattel who says. "The prince, ought not to interfere in the causes of his subjects in foreign countries and to grant them his protection excepting in cases where justice is refused, or palpable and evident injustice is done, or rules or forms openly violated, or finally an odious distinction made to the prejudice of his subjects, or of foreigners in general. The British Court established this maxim with great strength of evidence on occasion of the Russian vessels seized and declared lawful prizes during the war." We have also the authority of Lord Mansfield the famous judge, who expresses himself on the subject as follows:—"The Law of nations founded upon justice, equity, convenience and reason, and confirmed by all usages does not allow of reprisals, except in cases of violent injuries directed or supported by the State or justice absolutely denied in *re minima dubia* by ordinary authority and afterwards by courts. Where the judges are left to give assistance according to their consciences, though their judgment should be erroneous, there would be no ground for reprisals, but in doubtful questions different men think and judge differently; and all a foreigner can desire is that justice should be impartially administered to him, as it is to the subjects of the prince in whose courts the matter is tried." It is evident that in this conflict it was not a case for hostile aggression. This is demonstrated by examination of the facts taking them one by one. There were no violent injuries directed or supported by the State. Justice was not absolutely denied; as a matter of fact it was the claimants, Finlay and Pacifico, who, as will be shown in a subsequent article, studiously refrained from applying to the Courts. The attitude of the Greek government in these sad circumstances was a dignified one. We here append a letter from the Blue book which the Minister Lontos addressed to Mr. Wyse, the British Agent at Athens. Mr. Lontos, had just been appointed Minister.

† Lord Morleys life of Gladstone Vol. 1 pp. 370.

ATHENS, Jan. 7/19/1850.

"I have received the note which you did me the "honour to write to me yesterday. It would be im-"possible for me to express to you the feelings with "which it has been read by His Majesty the King of "Greece and his Government. The whole nation will "partake them. Greece is weak Sir, and she did not "expect that such blows would be aimed at her by a "Government which she reckoned with equal pride and "confidence among her benefactors." Let us interrupt and say that in fact the Greeks have always followed reverently sometimes to their detriment, the counsels of the Powers; and it is noteworthy that they have always appealed to Great Britain where they found many sympathisers in the general public, but very few in the officials of the various governments. "In "the presence of a force like that which obeys your "instructions, the Government of his Hellenic Majesty "can only oppose its rights and a solemn protest of "acts of hostility committed in profound peace and "which, without speaking of other interests of a higher "order, are a violation in the highest degree of its "dignity and independence, In this sad conjuncture "certain of the support of the Greek people, and of "the sympathies of the whole world, the King of "Greece and his Government *await with sorrow, but* "*without weakness*, the end of the trials, which, by "order of Her Brittanic Majesty's Government you "may still destine for them."

Is it possible to conceive a more calm and dignified reply in such circumstances.

M. A. SYRIOTIS.

† Gladstone in his most learned and able study of the Hellenic factor in the Eastern Problem comprised in the 4th Vol. of his book of high interest. "Gleanings of past years," says:—

"From the very beginning of the revolution in August, 1825, when the military pressure through the invasion of the Peloponessus by the Egyptian force had become severe, an act as formal and authoritative as the condition of a State still in embryo would permit, then declared that "the Greek nation places the sacred deposit of its liberty, independence and political existence, under the absolute protection of Great Britain. Canning (one of the names dearest to Greece), alone had perceived the full significance of the step; and entered upon perhaps the boldest and wisest policy which has been exhibited by a British Minister during the present Century;" except probably by Gladstone himself, and his liberal followers in the eighties.

ΓΙΑ ΤΗΝ ΠΑΤΡΙΔΑ. - Η ΚΑΡΔΙΑ ΤΗΣ ΒΑΣΙΛΟΠΟΥΛΑΣ.

By P. S. DELTA.

Τὸ ἔξοχον καὶ θαυμασίως ἐκτετυπωμένον βιβλίον τῆς Κας. Δέλτα, μετὰ πλείστων εἰκονογραφιῶν καὶ χρωματιστῆς εἰκόνος, δεμένον, δύνασθε νὰ τὸ προμηθευθῆτε ἀντὶ 4 σελλινίων ἐλεύθερον ταχυδρ. τελῶν, ἀπὸ:

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JEAN MOREAS.

While we are going to press we hear, with great regret the death of M. Jean Moréas (J. Papadiamandopoulos) occurred on Wednesday night the 29th instant in a private Hospital at St. Mendé, near Paris. By this death Greece loses one of her best sons and France one of her best poets.

Moréas was born at Athens on the 15th of April 1856, coming from one of the most illustrious families of Greece. There he passed his early youth and received his education up to the age of 20. At 18 he entered the University of Athens and started his literary career by publishing in the Οἰκογενειακὸν Ἡμερολόγιον of Pirres, his first poem entitled "Ἡ Κόρη τοῦ Βορρᾶ," The Maid of the North. We give below part of this poem which characterises at once the future poet of the *Stances*.

Ξένος ἐρώτων καὶ δακρύων
χωρὶς οὐδὲν νὰ μὲ κινῇ
γελῶν διήνυον τὸν βίον
ψυχρὸς ὡς φίλαυτος γύνη·

Ὁπότε εἶδον εἰς τὰ σκότη,
ἀκτὶς νὰ λάμψῃ ἱλαρά,
ἦτον ἡ φίλη μου ἡ πρώτη,
ἦτον ἡ κόρη τοῦ βορρᾶ.

To love and tears a stranger
By nothing moved,
I used to pass my life laughing
Like a self-loving woman,

Till in the gloom upon my vision broke,
A glorious beam of light,
That beam was my first love,
The Maiden of the North.

In the same year 1875 he founded, in collaboration with some friends, a small literary paper called Χελιδόνες (Swallows) in which he published several poems. One of these poems entitled Νὺξ χειμερινὴ (a Winter Night) has especially attracted the attention of the *literateurs* as marking the beginning of the transition from romantic to a more positive poetical art. Papadiamandopoulos did not confine himself to poetry alone. Being endowed with a brisk and self confident character, and desirous to always keep abreast in literary matters, he took part in the great debate which at that time was sustained on the Greek language between two of the best literary men of Modern Greece, Messrs. Angelos Vlachos and Roides. The first advocated the necessity of keeping the puristic style in the written Modern Greek language, while the second was in favour of the spoken, urging the imitation of all the Western peoples who, after shaking off the Latin yoke, have adopted their spoken language as a means of expressing their thoughts and have created a literature which is not only far more comprehensible and beneficial to the educated as well as to the uneducated classes, but it also surpasses Latin and in many instances attains the precision and the beauty of Ancient Greek. Of course Moréas whose views were very wide and principles very liberal ranged himself with Roides and in a series of articles, published in the Ἐφημερὶς τῶν Συζητήσεων discussed the linguistic question with much sense and wit greatly appreciated at the time. Soon afterwards in 1876 he published a collection of poems entitled Τρυγόνες καὶ Ἐχιδνες (Turtle-doves and vipers). This book was his last work in Greek as soon afterwards he left his native country to establish himself in Paris where he passed the rest of his life and wrote the best of his works. The narrow literary field of Greece and the high-flying verse of Moreas, which was greatly stimulated by the short voyage he made, a few years ago to France, Germany and other countries of central Europe, coupled with the good knowledge he had, from his childhood, of the French language and literature, exercised a great influence upon his decision to leave Athens and seek wider fields of activity. He expressed the spell and charm which Paris exercised upon him and the remorse he felt at leaving his native land in the following brief symbolical lines which were published immediately after his return to Athens from his first sojourn in France.

Εἰς ἄλσος ἔφθασα βαθύ: τὸ ἄλσος τῶν Μουσῶν.
Ἐκεῖ κατάρας ἤκουσα ἠχούσας ἀπαισίως,
Ἀλλὰ καὶ φθόγγους ρέοντας γλυκεῖς ἀπὸ τῶν κλώνων,
καὶ ἔκτοτε τὰ χείλη μου ψελλίζουν ἀκουσίως
τῶν Ἐχιδνῶν τοὺς συριγμοὺς καὶ τ' ἆσμα τῶν Τρυγόνων.

To a dense wood I came ;—the Muses, wood.
Ominous curses in my ears did ring,
But from the trees, sweet murmurs came :
And since that time my lips
Involuntarily lisp the vipers kiss
And the soft cooing of the Turtle doves

His true and solid poetical gift, his self-confidence and boldness accompanied by an ardent love of French literature and an incessant hard work to penetrate into it, have not been long to create for him an enviable position amongst the Parisian young poets. He managed to get over the greatest difficulty for such a task, which is that of the language affinity, in such a way as to make one of the best French critics, whom we quote in another column, say : " Moréas gave himself such a linguistic training as no child of France has probably ever possessed."

He started his literary career in France in November, 1882 as a contributor to the *Nouvelle Rive Gauche*. In 1884 he published his first work *Les Syrtes* which attracted a great deal of interest and made him prominent in French literary circles. We give below some extracts from appreciations published on his death in our French contemporaries *Le Matin* and *Le journal des Debats* by the well known writers and critics Messrs. Remy de Gourmont and Antoine Albalat, which show best the value of his achievements in French literature, and also we quote some lines from his *Stances*.

JEAN MOREAS EST MORT.

" Il y a quelque trente-cinq ans, Jean Moréas s'en vint d'Athènes en France pour être poète français, et persévérant dans son dessein, il conquit en effet une belle place dans le patrie de Ronsard et de Verlaine. Ses débuts coïncidèrent avec le mouvement symboliste dont il ne tarda pas à devenir un des guides. Il avait de grands espoirs ; ils se sont réalisés. Il disait volontiers, de sa voix très acdentuée et un peu impertinente :

— Je suis un Baudelaire, avec plus de couleur.

Il n'a pas été un Baudelaire : il a été Jean Moréas.

Sa popularité succéda, au quartier latin, à celle de Verlaine, et comme lui, il s'entoura, à la terrasse des cafés, d'une cour de jeunes gens avides de sa parole et fiers de sa familiarité.

La situation d'un jeune homme qui veut devenir un écrivain français, malgré son origine étrangère, est assez délicate. La langue française s'apprend, comme toutes les langues ; mais qui l'a apprise ne la sait jamais aussi bien que l'enfant qui a fait des pâtés de sable aux Tuileries, sous les gronderies et les caresses d'une mère

française. Moréas sentit cela très vite ; et il résolut, en compensation de ce qu'il n'avait pu acquérir, de se donner une éducation linguistique telle qu'aucun enfant de France n'en a probablement jamais recu. Il lut et étudia patiemment tous nos poètes et bonne partie de nos prosateurs, dépuis les origines jusqu'à la fin du dix-septième siècle, et il eut le bonheur de perfectionner son langage sans rien sacrifier de sa native originalité. L'érudition en efet n'est une charge que pour les sots ; les hommes d'esprit et de goût n'en sont nullement incommodés, et y gagnent, s'ils parlent de ces matières, de savoir ce qu'ils disent, ce qui est infiniment rare. D'ailleurs, qu'on le sache, tous les grands poètes furent de grands grammairiens, qu'ils se soient appelés Dante, Ronsard, Gœthe ou Victor Hugo.

Bientôt le vrai poète se révéla par les *Syrtes*, les *Cantillénes*, le *Pelerin passionné*. A ce dernier recueil on s'aperçut que Moréas commençait de délaisser le moyen âge et qu'il s'attachait à Ronsard, qui devait rester la grande admiration de sa vie et le hanter jusque sur son lit de mort. Ainsi peu à peu, sous le poète curieux, commençait à percer le grand poète, celui des *Stances* et celui d *Iphigénie*, que la Comédie-Française monte en ce moment et qu'il n'aura pas eu le bonheur de voir à la scène.

Moréas dans les *Stances*, nous montra une poésie égale en pureté et en précision aux œuvres les plus achevées de la Renaissance. On retrouve là le ton des sonnets si parfaits de Ronsard et de du Bellay, sans qu'il y ait imitation, car la langue dont il se sert est bien la sienne, çelle qu'il a forgée patiemment au feu de la forge classique, avec un métal particulier : le métal Moréas. Elle est hardie, cette langue, neuve, exacte. L'art y corrige l'ingénuité, et l'originalité s'y soumet au joug du gout. Le Moréas des *Stances* peut être entièrement senti et compris par une jeune fille habituée aux romances et aux chansons ; il sèmera en elle des désirs, des amours, des regrets, des espoirs ; il mettra dans ses mains et approchera de son cœur de simples fleurs aux parfums pénétrants, aux couleurs un peu mélancoliques. Les *Stances* sont des poésies d,automne :

Et le cœnr plein d'amour, je prendrai dans mes mains,
Au pied des peupliers les feuilles de l'automne.

Ces poèmes presque tous parfaits ont eu leur influence sur la poésie française, et une influence heureuse.

Nous avions besoin d'une riche simplicité. C'est l'art suprême. Elle nous y a conduits peu à peu. Mais on n'y est arrivé, comme Moréas lui-même, qu'après mille détours. Il n'est pas inutile, pour écrire les *Stances*, d'avoir écrit les *Cantillenes*. Les pires extravagances du symbolisme ont peut-être été avant tout des expériences."

REMY DE GOURMONT.

* * * *

"Ceux qni ont connu de près Jean Moréas ont pu apprécier, à travers ses incartades et son scepticisme de surface, la haute dignité de son caractère, la générosité de cet être de paradoxe et de fantaisie, qui était avant tout un sincère et un convaincu. Moréas ne croyait pas à grand chose ; mais il eut toujours, pour son art, pour la poésie, un amour, un enthousiasme dont il y a peu d'exemples. C'est par ce culte du beau que sa personnalité rayonnait et s'imposait. On le prenait, dans un certain public, pour un incorrigible bohême et un verbiageur exagéré. En réalité, Moréas a suivi la saine tradition et la pure doctrine classique. D'abord novateur d'expressions, curieux de rythme et de langue, épris même de décadence et de symbolisme, dans le *Pelerin Passionne* les *Syrtes* et les *Cantillenes*, se créant une originalité par l'imitation bien comprise de Ronsard et des vieux poètes, il purifia peu à peu son inspiration jusqu'à écrire des œuvres de forme Racinienne dans son *Iphigenie* et Lamartinienne dans ses *Stances*. Voilà le fond et l'evolution de son talent. Même relues aujourd'hui, ses premières poésies gardent une saveur et une originalité profondes. A notre époque de réclame à outrance, Moréas nous a donné un bel exemple de détachement. Il se souciait très peu de faire valoir ses œuvres ; mais il se souciait beaucoup de ce qu'elles valaient. Jamais il ne compromit son talent dans des profits et des calculs de métier. C'est cette forte conscience, c'est ce noble désintéressement qui lui inspiraient son mépris pour la facile production contemporaine, son exclusivisme d'artiste, son orgueil un peu hâbleur et bon enfant, dont on lui pardonnait si aisément la candeur. D'accord avec son goût, ses prédilections littéraires se fixèrent aux classiques. Il n'aimait que les classiques, depuis Homère et Sophocle, jusqu'à Bossuet et Racine. Sa simplicité n'etait compliquée qu'en apparence. S'il a peu vécu en Grèce, il ne cessa pas de vivre avec les poètes grecs.

Jean Moréas est mort en stoïcien et en fataliste, à la maniére de ces anciens poètes du paganisme, pour qui le monde n'était qu'un spectacle de couleurs et de formes, que la mort éparpillait et brisait comme on brise un miroir. Il est mort au moment où il se reprenait à vivre, à la veille de voir jouer son *Iphigenie* à la Comédie française. Jusqu'à la dernière minute, il a causé avec une sérénité et une lucidité parfaites, réglant ses affaires et plaisantant sur la mort. Il nous laisse le meilleur de lui-même, le souriant désenchantement de son âme, dans des œuvres très pures et très belles. L'admiration qu'ont eue ses amis va devenir le jugement de la postérité, maintenant qu'est arrivé pour lui ce moment qu'il semblait ne pos redouter. souhaiter même, lorsqu'il disait dans une stance."

Quand je n'entendrai plus le bruit
Que fait mon cœur sur cette terre.

ANTOINE ALBALAT.

STANCES.

Ne dites pas : la vie est un joyeux festin ;
Ou c'est d'un esprit sot ou c'est d'une âme basse
Surtout ne dites point : elle est malheur sans fin,
C'est d'un mauvais courage et qui trop tôt se lasse.

Riez comme au printemps s'agitent les rameaux,
Pleurez comme la bise ou le flot sur la grève,
Goûtez tous les plaisirs et souffrez tous les maux
Et dites : c'est beaucoup et c'est l'ombre d'un rêve.

* * * *

Nuages du'un beau jour à présent environne,
Au-dessus de ces champs de jeune blé couverts,
Vous qui m'apparaissez sur l'azur monotone
Semblables aux voiliers sur le calme des mers ;

Vous qui devez bientôt ayant la sombre face
De l'orage prochain, passer sous le ciel bas,
Mon cœur vous accompagne, ô coureurs de l'espace
Mon cœur qui vous ressemble et qu'on ne connait pas.

ΔΗΜΟΤΙΚΑ ΤΡΑΓΟΥΔΙΑ

The picturesque book of Agis Theros containing some hundred of the best Modern Greek Folk Songs can be obtained from the ANGLO-GREEK PRESS, 26-28, Sun Street, Finsbury Square, London, E.C., *Price 3/- post free.*

This volume is handsomely printed and contains many beautiful illustrations, which reflect admirably the distinctive Greek character of the poems.

Ἡ λαμπρὰ συλλογὴ τοῦ Α. Θέρου περιλαμβάνουσα περὶ τὰ ἑκατὸν ἐκ τῶν καλλιτέρων δημοτικῶν τραγουδιῶν πωλεῖται εἰς τὸ

Anglo-Greek Press, 26-28, Sun Street, Finsbury Sq., London, E.C.

Τὸ βιβλίον εἶναι φιλοκάλως τυπωμένον καὶ περιέχει πολλὰς ὡραίας εἰκόνας, αἱ ὁποῖαι ἀνταποδίδουν θαυμασίως τὸν ἀγνῶς Ἑλληνικὸν χαρακτῆρα τῶν ποιημάτων. Τιμὴ σελ. 3 ἐλεύθερα ταχυδρομικῶν τελῶν.

ON THE TRANSITION OF GREEK FROM ANCIENT TO MODERN.

II.

In his second lecture Dr. Menardos explained the immediate results of the change of pronunciation, and said that even before Christ the pronunciation of the majority of those who spoke Greek was that of the modern Greeks rather than that of the Athenians of the time. Orthography must no longer blind us to the fact that the Greeks always kept and still keep the spelling which was established under the archon Euclides, but immediately afterwards the Greek pronunciation was current under this fixed orthography, which soon remained as a mere historical relic.

The results of the change were not only phonetic. When *ει* was equivalent to *η*—this happened in Egypt during the II century B.C., no difference could be made between *πράξει* and *πράξῃ* and thus subjunction and future coincided. When *αυ* and *ευ* were pronounced as *αβ* and *εβ*—thus in the Septuagint *Δαυὶδ* and *Ναβὶ* are equivalent to *Δαυεὶδ* and *Ναυῆ*—the aorist of the verbs *ἔπαυσα* or *ἐχόρευσα* (*ἔπαβσα*, *ἐχόρεβσα*) was pronounced *ἔπαψα* and *ἐχόρεψα*, as *ἔγραψα* and *ἔτριψα*. When *ᾱ* (long) was equivalent to *ᾰ* (short), *τὴν θυγατέραν* was in use on the analogy of *τὴν ἡμέραν*· and afterwards *ἡ θυγατέρα*. When *χρυσοῖ* was pronounced as *χρυσοί*, the singular *ὁ χρυσὸς* instead of *ὁ χρυσοῦς* was very natural, and so on.

Thus practically a new dialect was formed and spread, increasingly different from the official language taught in the schools. This fact is the standpoint from which we must look at the history of late Greek literature. Writers had a problem to solve. If they used an attic style, they confined themselves within a narrow grove. If they introduced new words, their style lost its artistic value. Polybius first found himself confronted by this dificulty, but the authors of the second century A.D. were terribly perplexed. "Aristides found the only solution in avoiding the use of either nouns or verbs except those which are found in the books, the Attic books." Plutarch was of an opposite opinion and considered such a principle as pernicious for students. In his treaty *Πῶς δεῖ τὸν νέον Ποιημάτων ἀκούειν*, he says "He, who requires the words to be Attic is like the man, who refuses to take medicine unless the glass has been made at Athens." Such fancies have caused a scarcity of good sense and an abundance of verbosity in the schools. Nevertheless Galen thought that the mixed style, used by many of his contemporaries was "a mixture like salad, or rather something more peculiar than salad." Lucian, who undoubtedly had the gift of picking up languages, made a special point of deriding the awkward atticists of his time. His *Λεξιφάνης* and *Ψευδοσοφιστὴς* may be compared with some of Molière's characters.

Sextus Empiricus solves the problem as follows (*Πρὸς Μαθηματικούς*, Book I). "There is also another dialect of the uneducated (*βιοτική τις ἀφελής*), which varies in different towns and nations. Therefore in philosophy we shall use the style of the philosophers, in medicine the style which rather suits physicians, and in life we shall use the common and unpretentious dialect of the place.. because, the simple style is ridiculed by the educated as the elegant by the uneducated."

But why did not all those men of eminence, who thoroughly realised the gulf between the atticising style and their colloquial Greek, form a new style of their own? To this question two replies can be given. The first is that they had not the creative genius of a Thucydides. The second answer is that they were oppressed by a burden, which Thucydides had not to bear. They were oppressed by Thucydides himself, by Xenophon, by Theopompus and the increasing glory of the attic literature. Thus all the late Greek authors atticised as much as they could in proportion to their own erudition and to the erudition of those whom they addressed. This principle has remained in force in Greek literature for twenty centuries, down to the present day.

Now we can understand what a valuable memorial for the history of Greek are the papyri recently discovered in Upper Egypt, because they do not belong to literature proper but are written by common people. It is evident that they represent that *βιοτική τις ἀφελής* of Sextus Empiricus. Theologians also turned to the papyri understanding that the new Testament was, as Prof. Deissmann says, "a specimen of the colloquial form of late Greek and of popular language in particular." According to Mr. J. H. Multon, "the Holy Ghost spoke absolutely in the language of the people as we might surely have expected he would."

Dr. Menardos thinks that the Fathers of the Church have clearly discribed to us the contempt which the style of the Gospel provoked in educated readers and he quoted many passages especially of Origen, who calls it "humble and contemptible style." Origen informs us also that "the philosophy of Plato does not promote a true piety in his readers, but the humble style of the Holy Scripture provokes enthusiasm."

This was perfectly true. As a fact, the literary side seems to have been of great importance in the whole movement of Christianity. Perhaps the abolition of the Greek Gods was not so difficult as the humiliation of Greek education which had its throne at Athens. Dr. Menardos thinks that the atticising *hommes de lettres* who travelled in the large Greek towns with their long staves, by using the polite and archaic language of the schools, by quoting so many passages from the ancient poets, by composing scholastic and ridiculous speeches, which they recited with an entirely artificial pronunciation, called forth the ridicule even of their own servants and inspired common people with mistrust.

In comparison with those degenerate representatives of Atticism, those Mandarins of prosody and grammar, the inspired apostles of Christianity, by using plain language in their speeches, gave the impression of being far more sincere ; they appealed to the heart, and by winning the confidence of the masses, who spoke common Greek, won the greatest intellectual victory in the history of Mankind.

Thus the struggle between the Christians who used the popular language and the intellectual aristocracy who insisted on attic, continued for a long time. The Fathers of the Church seemed to be divided on this important point. Clemes of Rome pronounced an official ban against "all the heathen books" viz. Greek literature. On the contrary Clemes of Alexandria was a defender of Greek philosophy, and what he said is very characteristic "most of those, who bear the name of Christ, like the companions of Odysseus, shut their ears to the rythm and tune of Greek, because they know that if they once hear Greek lectures they will not be able to return home." The hymnists of the Church sung the triumph of the Holy Virgin against the Athenian rhetoricians and philosophers. But when the Greek nationality felt itself strong enough at Constantinople to rule the other Christian tribes, Atticism reappeared before the Church and the Church embraced that immortal phantom. As a fact, the illustrious Patriarch who claimed for Byzantium the primacy, was the same man, who included in the *Μυριόβιβλος* the whole ancient Greek wisdom.

Archaeology.

The Greek Archeological Society.

A few days ago the Archaeological Society of Athens resumed the work of excavating the Ceramicus, under the directions of the learned archaeologist A. Brückner who about 15 years before had meditated a similar excavation of an ancient cemetery not far from the Ceramicus.

The well-known ancient Attic cemetery near Hagia Triada at the end of the Piraeus road, situated before the ancient Sacred Gate near the Dipylon, was discovered some fifty years ago or more by the Archaeological Society.

In 1870 further excavations were undertaken by this Society with a view to new discoveries. The pioneers of these investigations were Stephanos Kumanoudes and Ath. Rousopulos. From that time the Archaeological Society ceased further researches in this place and limited themselves to the preservation of the ancient monuments they discovered, which are most precious as works of art and, being in their old position and affording exact and unique testimony as to the form and construction of the ancient cemeteries, are of very great value. Yet it was known that the excavation was not complete, and above all that the graves, over which the sculptured memorials were raised, had not all been brought to light. A few years ago the *ephore* V. Staes had attempted excavations on a small scale for the purpose of examining a tomb near Hagia Triada opposite the famous monument of Dexileos, in the course of which a number of tombs were discovered.

Like most ancient cemeteries, that near Hagia Triada was on each side of the ancient road, which, forming a branch of the old Sacred Way, led from the Sacred Gate to the villages outside Athens.

The majority and the most noteworthy of the monuments preserved are the work of the 4th century B.C.

The learned professor succeeded in making it certain that the floor of the cemetery and of the ancient road was in these times some 2 metres deeper than was the case after the excavations of the Archaeological Society. The foundations, on which the carved memorials are set up, and which before excavation appeared to be insignificant walls, were shown to be splendid buildings such as usually surround groups of tombs belonging to separate families. The chief position is occupied by the memorials of the family of Dexileos, a Knight who died at Corinth in 394, whose beautiful likeness is set up on the summit of a platform like momument ju t opposite the little church of Hajia Triada.

Careful investigation and excavation revealed the manner in which the place was gradually filled up and the floor of the road already elevated in ancient times.

In the past year many other tombs had also been excavated, but the finds were not remarkably productive.

These excavations will now give us the first genuine representation of an ancient cemetery.

German School.

Session of the 17th February.

At the commencement of the proceedings M. Caro announced the death of the Archaeologist Altmann, in the prime of life, when he could have rendered important services to knowledge; also of Hamdi Bey, director of the archaeological museum in Constantinople, the only one among the Turks who was conscious of the value of the study of antiquities and did much to promote it.

Next Herr Lattermann discussed the architectural construction of the *Telesterion* at Eleusis and the porch belonging to it, built by the architect Philo, who also constructed the Store-house at the Piraeus in the time of Demetrius of Phalerum (313 *b.c.*). Herr Lattermann, examining a new inscription from Eleusis, treating of the construction of the porch of Philo and especially of its foundations, showed that this porch was built in accordance with the inscription.

Subsequently, M. Caro discussed the numerous prehistoric engraved stones and rings found in Crete and Greece. He endeavoured to determine their date on the strength of specimens whose date is certain, and also from the evidence afforded by their discovery. He assigned the specimens to seven periods (following A. J. Evans), the earliest of which (the old-Minoan) is older than 2000 B.C., while the latest goes down to the 11th century B.C. He then showed how the art of seal-engraving was developed from the simple symbolic signs, exhibited by the oldest engraved stones, up to its prime in the middle of the second millenium B.C. and down to its subsequent decline in the last Mycenean period, which was followed by the overthrow of the prehistoric civilization by the invading Dorians.

Austrian School.

Session of the 10th February.

Herr Prassniker, member of the school, delivered an address on the *acroteria* of the Parthenon, *i.e.* the decorative works on the highest points of its pediments. Previous writers on the Parthenon have said very little about the *acroteria*, because they we.e only acquainted with only a few of them from fragments, which they did not examine intelligently or correctly. Herr Prassniker, having collected all the fragments of gigantic *anthemia* and carefully studied their relative positions as compared with many analogous *anthemia* and similar antique decorations, succeeded in establishing their form in most instances and in confirming the fact that they were placed upon the roof of the Parthenon as *acroteria*. Similarly at Aegina, *anthemia* were placed upon the temple of Aphaea as *acroteria*, and on the *acroterion* of the highest point of the temple, on either sides of the *anthemion*, there are also two female forms. The *anthemia* of the *acroteria* of the Parthenon are very lofty in proportion to the breadth of the lower part. This leaves us doubt that for the sake of symmetry, certain complementary figures were placed on either side of the *anthemion* such as the female forms on the summit of the temple of Aphaea; but it is not clear what these complementary figures were. But that no doubt might arise as to the fragments of *anthemia* on the Acropolis and these found near the Parthenon being really *acroteria* of the Parthenon, Herr Prassniker, observed that they cannot be attributed to any other building on the Acropolis; since the building of the Propylæa remained incomplete, so that no *acroteria* were placed upon it, and the Erechthium is relatively small, whereas the *anthemia* mentioned were about three metres high and consequently suit the Parthenon alone.

Subsequently, Herr von Premerstein, the director of the school, discussed an Athenian *psephisma* (degree) written upon a marble pillar, a fragment of which was recently found in the course of the excavations of the Archeological Society to the north of the Acropolis. This degree was in honour of a certain merchant, a *metoikos* (resident alien) of Athens who about 175 *b.c.* sold corn to the city of Athens at a low price. On another occasion, he had bought 1,500 *metretai* (68,500 litres) of oil and conveyed it to Pontus to sell and purchase corn from those parts; but having learnt that there was a scarcity of oil in Athens, he took it back and sold it to the city at a cheap rate, thus sacrificing the profit he could have made. This decree, although imperfect, is very important for the knowledge of the history of trade and the economic troubles of Athens in the first half of the second century *b.c.*, when, owing to the wars of the Romans with Antischus King of Syria and Philip V of Macedonia, commercial transactions were difficult and an economic crisis threatened. The Athenians at that time were friends of the Romans, and by their support were able to do business safely with Pontus, where in former times they carried on a very flourishing trade.

Modern Greek Literature.

Ο ΠΛΑΤΑΝΟΣ. THE PLANE TREE.

By C. MICHAELIDES.

Τὸν εἶχε φυτέψει, μικρὸ κλωνάρι, μὲ τὰ δικά της τὰ χέρια ἐμπρὸς στὴν πόρτα τοῦ περιβολιοῦ. Καὶ κάθε ἡμέρα, αὐτὴ τὸν ἐπότιζε, ὡς ποὺ μονάχος του εὗρῆκε τὴν πηγὴ τῆς ζωῆς, καὶ μέσα ἀπὸ τὰ πλατειά της στήθη ἔπαιρνε δύναμι κ' ἐμεγάλωνε.

Πλατὺς καὶ ψηλὸς ἔχυνε τώρα τὴ σκιά του ἐπάνω στὸ σπίτι τῆς κόρης. Στεκόταν ὑπερήφανος, καμαρωτός. Ὅλοι τὸν ἐζήλευαν καὶ ἔρριχναν ἐπάνω του μάτια βάσκανα, καὶ πολλὲς φορὲς θέλησαν νὰ τὸν ρίξουν κάτω μὲ μιὰ κρυφὴ μαχαιριά, μὰ τὸν προφύλαγε ἀπὸ καθετὶ ἡ ἀγάπη τῆς κυρᾶς του. Εἶχε κάτι ἐπάνω του, ποὺ τὸν ξεχώριζε ἀπὸ κάθε ἄλλον πλάτανο, ἀπὸ κάθε ἄλλο δένδρο στὴ μικρὴ πολιτεία. Τόσο γερός, ἀντρειωμένος, καὶ ὅμως σοῦ θύμιζε τὸ λεπτὸ κορμὶ ἐκείνης ποὺ τὸν εἶχε φυτέψει, τὴν εὐγενικὴ καὶ ζηλεμένη ζωὴ τῆς κόρης ποὺ ὅλη ἡ πολιτεία τὴν ἐθαύμαζε καὶ τὴν ἐκύτταζε μὲ λατρεία μὰ καὶ μὲ φθόνο. Βασιλοποῦλα τὴν ἔλεγαν· ἄλλοι μὲ ἀλήθεια καὶ μὲ ἀγάπη, ἄλλοι ἀπὸ ζήλεια καὶ ἀπὸ κακία.

Ὁ Πλάτανος φουντωτὸς ἐσκέπαζε ὅλο τὸ σπίτι, ἕνα ὀνειρεμένο σπιτάκι, καὶ τὸ προφύλαγε μὲ τὸν κορμό του καὶ μὲ τοὺς κλώνους καὶ μὲ τὸ φύλλωμά του ἀπὸ τὰ μάτια τὰ φθονερά, 'σὰν ἕνας μεγάλος καὶ ἄγρυπνος φρουρὸς ποὺ ἔνοιωθε βαθειὰ τί χρωστοῦσε στὰ λεπτὰ χέρια ποὺ τοῦ εἶχαν δόσει τὴν ζωή.

Κατάλευκο τὸ σπιτάκι ξεχώριζε μὲ τὶς ἁπλὲς γραμμές του, μὲ τὴν σεμνή του ἐμορφιά. Ἐφάνταζε σὰν ἀληθινὸ παλάτι βασιλοπούλας ποὺ ἄφησε καὶ πλούτη καὶ τιμές, νὰ ζήσῃ ἀγνώριστη μὲ τὰ δικά της τὰ ἰδανικά. Ζοῦσε μὲ τὴ μυρωδιὰ τῶν λουλουδιῶν, μὲ τῶν πουλιῶν τὸ τραγοῦδι, μὲ καθετὶ ποὺ μᾶς ἔδωκε ἡ φύσις γιὰ νὰ στολίζωμε τὴν ἀγάπη καὶ νὰ γλυκαίνωμε τὸν πόνο. Κάθε φορὰ ὁποῦ ἐπρόβαλλε στὸ παράθυρο ἡ μορφή της, χαμήλωνε ὁ Πλάτανος τοὺς κλώνους του νὰ τὴν χαιρετίσῃ. Χαιρετοῦσε τὴν χάρι, τὴν ἐμορφιὰ καὶ τὴ σκέψι ποὺ βαθούλωνε ἐλαφρὰ τὰ μάτια της. Καὶ ζοῦσε ἔτσι μὲ τὴν εὐτυχία τῶν παραμυθιῶν, ποὺ δὲ τὴν ἐγνώρισαν οἱ ἄνθρωποι καὶ αἰώνια τὴν πονοῦν.

Ἦρθε καιρὸς ποὺ ἡ κόρη ἄφησε τὸ ζηλεμένο σπίτι. Ἕνα παλληκάρι πέρασε μιὰ μέρα, τὴν εἶδε καὶ τὴν ἀγάπησε. Ἡ βασιλοποῦλα ἔγινε βασίλισσα στὸ μικρὸ βασίλειο ποὺ τῆς ἔδωκε ἡ ἀγάπη.

Τὸ σπίτι ἔμεινε ἔρημο. Ὁ Πλάτανος δὲν ἐχαμήλωνε πιὰ τοὺς κλώνους του νὰ χαιρετίσῃ τὴν ἀγαπημένη του. Ἐπῆρε ὅλη τὴ δύναμι ποὺ ἠμποροῦσε νὰ πάρῃ ἀπὸ τῆς γῆς τοὺς κόλπους καὶ ὅλη τὴν ἄγρια ἐμορφιὰ ποὺ θὰ τοῦ ἔδινε ἡ συντροφιὰ τοῦ δάσους. Ὅλοι τὸν κύτταζαν μὲ τὰ μάτια ὁλάνοικτα νὰ θεριέψῃ μονομιᾶς τόσο, ποὺ ξεπέρασε πολλὲς φορὲς τὴ στέγη τοῦ σπιτιοῦ καὶ ἄπλωσε τοὺς κλώνους του γύρω ὁλόγυρα, πυκνοὺς καὶ φουντωμένους. Καὶ ὅταν ἔφθασε σ' αὐτὸ τὸ ὕψος, ποὺ ἄλλος πλάτανος δὲν ἔφθασε, καὶ ἀντίκρυσε ἀπὸ ψηλὰ τὴν ζωή, ἄρχισε σιγὰ σιγὰ νὰ χαμηλώνῃ, νὰ προσπαθῇ ν' ἀγκαλιάσῃ τὸ σπίτι τῆς βασιλοπούλας. Ἔβλεπες μέρα μὲ τὴν ἡμέρα νὰ κατεβαίνῃ πιὸ χαμηλά, τόσο ὡς ποὺ τὸ σκέπασε ὁλότελα χωρὶς νὰ τὸ ἐγγίζῃ. Καὶ μέσα στὴ μοναδικὴ αὐτὴ ἄνθησι ἐπῆρε μιὰν ὄψι θλιβερή.

Λέγουν πὼς τὸ βράδυ, ὅταν καὶ στὸ τελευταῖο σπίτι τῆς μικρῆς πολιτείας σβύσῃ κάθε φῶς, καὶ μόνον τὰ ἄστρα ἀπὸ ψηλὰ φωτίζουν τοῦ Πλάτανου τὴν παράμερη ζωή, ἀκούεται ἕνα σιγανὸ ψιθύρισμα ποὺ βγαίνει μέσα ἀπὸ τὸ φύλλωμά του καὶ μοιάζει σὰν παράπονο καὶ σὰν τραγοῦδι ἐρωτικό.

She had planted it, a small branch, with her own hands before the garden gate. Every day she watered it, until by itself it found the fountain of life and from its broad bosom drew strength and grew. Broad and lofty it now spread its shade above the maiden's house. It stood proudly, all were jealous of it and cast envious eyes upon it; many a time they would have secretly cut it down, but its mistress's love protected it from all. There was something about it, which made it different from every other plane-tree, from every other tree in the little town. Healthy and strong it was, and yet its slender trunk reminded one of her who had planted it, of the noble and envied life of the maiden whom all the town admired and looked upon with adoration or with envy. 'King's daughter' they called her, some in honesty and affection, others in envy and malice.

The spreading plane-tree covered the whole house, a little house that one might dream of, and screened it with its trunk and boughs and foliage from jealous eyes, like a tall and sleepless warder who was deeply conscious of how much it owed to the slender hands which had given it life.

The little house, quite white, was distinguished by its simple outlines, and its simple beauty. It seemed a real palace of a King's daughter who had given up wealth and honour to live unknown with her own ideals. She dwelt amidst the perfume of flowers, the song of birds, with everything that nature has given us to embellish love and sweeten pain Whenever she appeared at the window, the plane-tree lowered its boughs in greeting. It saluted the grace, the beauty, and the pensiveness which lightly marked her eyes. Thus she lived in that happiness of fairy-stories which is unknown to human beings and always envied by them.

But a time came when the maiden left her envied house. A youth passing by saw her and loved her. The Queen's daughter became Queen in the little Kingdom which love gave her.

The house was deserted. The plane-tree no longer bent it bows to greet its beloved mistress. It drew all the strength it could from the bosom of the earth and all the wild beauty which the company of the forest would have given it. All gazed upon it with eyes wide open when they saw it shoot up all at once, higher than the roof of the house, spreading its branches round about it, thick and bushy. And when it had grown as high as no plane-tree had grown before, and met the life from above, it began quietly, quietly to stoop, trying to embrace the Queen's Daughter's house. One could see it every day coming lower and lower, until it overspread the house completely without touching it. And in this unique blooming it afforded a melancholy spectacle

It is said that in the evening, when every light is exstinguished in the last house in the little town, and only the stars pass on high lighten the plane-trees lonely life, a gentle whisper is heard proceeding from its foliage, as it were a lament and song of love.

THE MODERN AND THE ANCIENT GREEKS.

The well known German writer M. F. Bumiller, who, after long residence in Greece and repeated travellings, acquired a knowledge of the people and country rarely possessed by others, published sometime ago in a German paper a most interesting article on the Greeks of old and the Greeks of to-day, of which we have the pleasure of offering to our readers a translation.

In spite of few inaccuracies, Mr. Bumiller, grasps wonderfully well the principal characteristics of the Modern Greeks and their resemblance and contrasts to their ancestors, and gives us an assay such as we seldom find in the works of Western writers, too often superficial and based on a very brief sojourn.

The Tyrolian Fallmeyer, maintains, by theories refuted since by science, that the Greeks of to-day have no right to believe themselves the descendants of the Ancient Greeks. This judgment, which seems a condemnation to the modern Greeks, so proud of their Hellenic origin, is founded on the fact that the Slavs and the Avares, in installing themselves in Greece infused foreign blood into the Greek race. What importance should be accorded to the fact? At the classic epoch, the Greeks had already absorbed a certain amount of foreign blood. It is sufficient to mention Demosthenes, in whose veins ran the purest Hellenic, combined with barbaric blood. And the example of Demosthenes is not unique. It could not indeed be otherwise, seeing the extension of commercial enterprise, and the development of expansion by the ancients whose net-work of colonies, embraced the surface of the entire world as then known.

The ancient Greeks attached very great importance to the purity of Hellenic origins, and considered the Acarnanian, Etolian and Macedonian races by reason of their mingling with foreign elements as semi-barbarous. On this ground they refused at first, to allow the Macedonian Kings to take part in the national games, recognising nevertheless that these Kings were originally from Argos, in the Peloponnesus. These obstinate upholders of race tradition, took account only, of the most remote periods, on one hand, the Phenician and Egyptian colonisations, and on the other, the mingling of the Hellenic conquerors with the old pelasgic races, who considered as ancestors of the Illyrians, had already renewed the Grecian blood.

Take the slaves recruited for the most part, among the barbarian captives, and who after their liberation, passed into the ranks of free men; how much did they not contribute to the infusion of foreign blood into the Greek people! And later, when Christianity brought about the abolition of slavery, the complete fusion of the race with these foreign elements was inevitable.

At the Roman epoch, when so many Romans occupied villas in Attica and other parts of Greece, and sent their prodigal sons to be educated at Athens, the blending of Roman and Greek blood must have been very great.

The Byzantine Period.

After assimilating so many anomalous elements, the Hellenic race enters the Byzantine period of its history. Hellenism found in Byzantium, (the metropolis of the Roman Empire in the East) a new centre to take the place of the decayed city of Athens, at which shone the two Hellenic lights of the Middle Age, the Greco-Roman Emperor and the Patriarch.

To Constantinople, as to all other capitals, flocked not only Greeks, but a crowd of people, representative of the various races who formed the Eastern Empire. These divers elements, thanks to the predominant place occupied by the Greek race in the Byzantine Empire, and the power of the assimilation, soon gave to the country a new market, a new field, similar to that attained under the rule of the Macedonians in Asia, and of the classic Greek epoch in Egypt.

The Hellenic civilisation and language under Alexander were in no way influenced by the vanquished peoples of Asia and Egypt. The Greeks of the Byzantine period, notwithstanding their *melange* with Asiatic Races, with Bulgarians and with Slavs did not lose their pagan character. Greek civilisation and the Greek language were preserved, and spread so extensively throughout the Byzantine Empire, that in our days Greek is still spoken, and understood in almost all Asia Minor and Egypt.

The Slavs and the Avares.

It is certain that at the Byzantine epoch, by a provisional arrangement, a large proportion of the devastated and abandoned plains in the Eastern provinces, were occupied by the Slavs and the Avares, the Greeks having retired to the towns, and to the mountains. But what is there to-day to remind us of these invasions of Slavs and other barbarians? Only slight traces;—a few names of towns and villages, slav or slavonised (for example Tripolitz instead of Tripolis) and some rare words, Slav, or debased Greek. These are the sole vestiges there of what was to Greece the great Slav invasion! At the present day, as in other times, the Greek tongue and Greek civilisation have effaced all traces of the language and civilisation of the barbarians.

All those Slavs who were not driven away by the Greeks of the country or by the Byzantine troops, and remained there by their own will, were absorbed by the Greek race and completely Hellenised. In our days it is impossible to distinguish a Slav type in Greece. The Slavs, contrary to Fallmeyer's opinion, form but a very small number in Greece. If it were otherwise, the Slav element would have assimilated the Greeks instead of being absorbed by the latter.

The Crusaders.

Later we find Byzantium in the hands of the Crusaders. The French and Italian nobles with their followers, established themselves in Greece. We can find to-day descendants of these families in certain islands of the Cyclades, (Santorin and Naxos for instance) but they bear no traces distinguishable from the Latin and French conquerors of the other Greeks, except the foreign derivation of their names, and their religion. The greater part of them are Catholics. This applies also to the Venetians who later settled in these dominions. It should however be noted that the Latin peoples left in the Greek language far more traces than the hordes of Slavs, and consequently contributed much more to its evolution. But the Greek tongue, and above all the popular tongue was affected chiefly at the time of the Mussulman conquest, following which, the Byzantine *savants*, who until then had held very high the standard of pure Greek, were driven from Byzantium, and dispersed throughout the world. The true ancient language exists now, only in the ecclesiastical books of the orthodox clergy, in general not very enlightened. The language of the people, deprived of scholastic control becomes every day more different from that of the classic times. It is quite credible that with the Greeks under Turkish domination, there was a new mixture of alien blood, still, if that be true of those Greeks who, especially in Crete, were compelled to embrace Islamism, the difference in religion would in general, be an obstacle to *rapproachement* between Greeks aud Mussulmans.

The Albanians and other elements.

The Greek race and tongue were maintained under the Turkish rule, although a new element which had already been apparent under the Byzantines; (the Albanian) poured into Greece. At the present day the Albanians form a fifth of the population of the Greek

Kingdom. The Greeks despise the Albanians notwithstanding the glorious part taken by them in the Hellenic struggle for independence ; it is remembered that the Hydriotes and the Souliotes are of Albanian origin. This disdainful attitude of the Greeks due largely to the attachment of the Albanians to their manners and their language, has hitherto delayed the fusion of the two races. Nevertheless the careful looker-on will notice evident indications that this fusion has begun, and that wherever a partial *melange* has taken place, it has been always for the benefit of the Greek race. Slowly but surely, the Albanians are suffering the fate of all other foreigners transplanted to Greece. We find that the Greeks on their part have borrowed from the Albanians their national costume the *fustanelle.*

There exists in Greece, another foreign element—the Jewish, numerous only in Corfu, but with which the Greek race has mingled even less than with the Tziganes. The melanges between Greeks and Kutzo-Vlachs are also of slight importance. The Vlachs are a people of wanderers, few in numbers and conspicuous according to the account of the Greeks, by a bitter hatred of all that is foreign.

Lastly to be mentioned, are the foreigners who for divers reasons, establish themselves in Greece and marry Greek women. In this category, the Germans are numerous enough, their commerce so prosperous in the East, attracting them in large numbers. There are also different German families who have resided in Greece since the time of King Otho of Bavaria, such as the Esslings, the Minellers, the Streits, and occupying a very high rank in society. All these families however and also the Bavarian colony of Heracleion, founded near Athens by King Otho, are to-day almost entirely hellenised. This is one proof more, of the vitality of the Greek race, and its power of assimilation.

After having thus enumerated the various peoples who have infused into the Hellenic race a foreign blood, there remains the following question ; what to-day after all these *melanges*, and notwithstanding these are the characteristic features of this race ?

The Language.

Let us glance in the first place at the language. This has preserved itself intact ; every one conversant with ancient Greek will admit that the foundation is entirely Greek. The foreign words which have slipped into the Greek vocabulary have been themselves completely hellenised, having adopted Greek terminations ; for the Greek has a mania for giving an Hellenic form to foreign vocables, proper names not excepted. Time has without doubt strangely altered both grammar and syntax, but the famous Greek philologist Coray, and his pupils have succeeded in blending the constituents of vulgar Greek with the classic tongue, which associates closely the language of the people with the ancient Greek.

The numerous journals published in Greece make almost exclusive use of this reformed tongue. This tends to familiarise the people with it from day to day, and to cause it to be adopted in society as an elegant language.

The vulgar tongue in use among the people, is itself, of purely Greek foundation. In certain provinces are to be met with, even words, which belong to the Attic dialect of the classic age. Whilst for example water in modern Greek is *νερὸν* (word wholly Greek) in Trebizonde and its environs and also in the Peloponnesus the word *ὕδωρ* is used. The Tsaconians make use of a Dorian dialect very archaic, and incomprehensible to the other Greeks.

The name, Tsaconians corresponds with that of the Laconians, and indicates the origin of that people. The Maniates of Laconia also use an archaic Dorian dialect. Even at Cyprus the language has preserved its ancient purity.

Briefly, modern Greek is in its divers forms, a legitimate although neglected descendant of the ancient tongue, and proves more than any argument, the Hellenic origin of the Greeks of to-day. The pronunciation of Erasmus though not general, is customary in the colleges; the question of the pronunciation of the ancient Greeks is not yet settled, nevertheless we should remark that without doubt, the letters *ζ σ δ* and *θ* were in ancient times, pronounced in a manner very different from that taught in our schools and this does not seem to plead in favour of the pronunciation of Erasmus.

The Character.

The character of the modern Greeks is also as Hellenic as their language. The Greek of to-day, like his ancestors, is patriotic, and ardently attached to his city or his natal village, which he designates by the name of *Patris.* He is as brave as the ancient Greek, when led by able chiefs. In the last war of 1897, the soldiers fought in Epirus under Baïractaris with the greatest courage and contempt of death, against the Turks much more numerous, whose attacks they successfully repulsed, but in Thessaly under officers for the most part incapable, they were forced to retreat before the superior forces of the enemy. Nevertheless the men from the islands and the mountaineers of Arcadia and Etolia displayed even in these circumstances, the old Hellenic bravery.

At the time of the struggle for independence, more than one Leonidas appeared on the scene. Diakos for example, Papaflessas and others, who preferred massacre by a foe far superior in numbers rather than save themselves by flight. The heroic defense of the Khani of Gravia, by Odysseus Androutzos, is famous to this day. And quite recently, in Crete and Macedonia, the Greek insurgents have conquered the respect of their adversaries.

Another characteristic trait of the ancients was their hospitality which we find also among the modern Greeks. Most peasants entertaining the stranger will kill a fowl in his honour, and refuse to accept money in return. The peasant of to-day is as temperate in eating and drinking as were his ancestors ; like them he mixes the strong heady wines of his country with water. He knows how to enjoy a holiday without going to excess. Drunkenness is rarely met with, the Greek despising as the ancients also did, gluttony and inebriety, and like them, loving moderation in all things.

Poetry and the fine arts, show development in Greece from day to day, but progress is slow ; the country being too poor, and too backward for the encouragement of these luxuries. Owing to this cause, the Greek artists for the most part reside in foreign lands ; we need only mention the celebrated painter, Ghizis, who was a Professor at the Munich Academy and whom Germany almost regards as a compatriot of her own. That the Greeks still possess artistic gifts is proved by the skill of their marble-workers and cabinet-makers. We find also, among amateurs, excellent painters and talented engravers.

The Greek of to-day like his ancestors in ancient times, is essentially a trader, with a shrewd capacity for making a profit. As in bygone times, he is a mariner, and occasionally a pirate ; brigands from the mountains however, and pirates during the war of independence, were ever ready to fight in the front ranks.

Like his forefathers, the Greek is fond of gossip and inquisitive. He enjoys discussions on topics of all kinds, politics and the democratic spirit interest him above everything. Demagogues are to be found, as in ancient times at the head of affairs, and the state is torn as it was then, by party struggles.

Family life in general is exemplary, and woman commands the same esteem as was bestowed on her ages ago.

Manners and Customs.

I will here mention a few features of ancient manners and customs which are preserved up to the present day. Funeral ceremonies much resemble those of antiquity. Hymns are chanted in honour of the dead. The corpse reposes on the bed dressed in its best attire and the feet turned towards the door. It is

conveyed to the tomb in an uncovered coffin, and interred before evening, night burials being regarded as disrespectful to the dead. After interment, the funeral repast is given and precisely as in the days when the ancients offered sacrifices to the names of the departed are placed on the tombs, (30 or 40 days after burial) plates of meal prepared with dry raisins and sugar. In our time Charon still ferries across the souls of the dead to Hades. Young and old follow him with lamentations, for the Greek with all his heart loves life.

During the marriage ceremony, the bridal couple are as of old encircled with wreaths of orange flowers, the ancient custom of the bride's bath being still observed. Weddings in several parts of the country take place as in classic times at night.

The modern, like the ancient Greek is strongly attached to the outside worship of his religion, and the ceremonials of the first Christian ages, are observed more strictly in the Greek, than in the Catholic Church.

To conclude, in all which relates to race type, notwithstanding the mixture of Slav and Asiatic blood, the true Greek character predominates. We do not see so often the famous contour of nose and forehead, familiar to us in the figures of Hermes and Apollo, though similar examples are not rare even in the Greece of to-day. We see by the bust of Socrates, and the figures painted for vases and the bas-reliefs of tombs, which faithfully reproduce the features of the defunct as they existed in former times, some types very different from those of the divine statues. This type of the Greek race, such as it appears in the realistic marks of antiquity, the observer in our days will find more or less well preserved among the inhabitants of Greece.

The writer exagerates the numerical strength of the Albanian element in Greece. According to the last official census of 1906, it numbers 132,148 souls which hardly form the one twentieth of the population. It is also not exact that the Albanians are treated with contempt by the Greeks. They enjoy in Greece absolute freedom and equality and they are allowed to fill up the most exalted offices of State.

The Kutzo-Vlachian element is more important than Mr. Bumiller suggests. But it is almost entirely Hellenized. In Epirus and Macedonia, the Greek aspirations of the Kutzo-Vlachs are so powerful that they are regarded as the pioneers of Hellenism in those lands.—*(Editorial note.)*

The Pan Hellenic Union of America.

This useful and high aiming Society, the foundation of which we greeted with much satisfaction some two years ago, made lately a great stride towards the achievement of its object. Under the able Presidency of Mr. Th. P. Jon, Professor of International Law at the Boston University, and the collaboration of a Committee of distinguished Greek patriots coming from the principal Greek centres of the United States, the Society has not only widened its original scope and conquered the esteem and affection of all the numerous Greek Communities of America, but also placed its organisation on a much firmer footing. We have no doubt the Pan Hellenic Union in its new shape will render great services to the honest and hard-working Greeks scattered throughout the Great Republic, who while endowed with great skill and remarkable qualities which render them an important factor of progress in the States, were greatly in need of an institution which would help to improve their material position as well as their *morale*. Moreover it would help them to render to their Mother Country, which at the present time is in need more than ever of the support and affection of all her children, a more systematical and practical aid.

We give below some of the articles of the Status of the Union together with the names of the acting Committee, and we wish the Society every success and prosperity.

Objects of the Pan Hellenic Union.

The Greeks residing in the U. States and Canada do hereby ordain and establish a fraternity which shall be known as the Pan Hellenic Union.

The Pan Hellenic Union shall have for its objects:

a. To cultivate among its members and through them among all the Greeks residing in the United States and Canada the spirit of mutual aid and of love for their own nationality.

b. To instil veneration and effection for the laws and institutions of their adopted country and the cultivation of friendly relations between the Greeks and American citizens.

c. To Teach the English and Greek languages, to preserve the Greek Orthodox Church and to develop and propagate educational and moral doctrines among the Greek compatriots residing in the United States and Canada.

d. To procure pecuniary and other aid for the members of the Union and those dependant upon them, and, as far as its means will permit, to extend its protection to Greek immigrants and laborers.

e. To secure the moral and material assistance of the Union toward the great needs of the Nation.

2. *Headquarters of the Union.*

The City of Boston, in the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, shall be the headquarters of the Pan Hellenic Union for the next four years.

ACTING COMMITTEE.

Th. P. Jon, President—Boston.
Ant. Vrachnos, Vice-President—Boston.
G. N. Nicolaou, Vice-President—New York.
B. M. Venetzanakis, Vice-President—Chicago.
A. Synadinos, Treasurer—Boston.
J. Boudouri, Secretary—Boston.
G. Gatsopoulos, Member of the Committee—Lowell.
D. Mitsakos, ,, ,, ,, Lowell.
St. Stamatellos ,, ,, ,, Boston.
K. Zevgitis ,, ,, ,, Boston.
St. Stagopoulos ,, ,, ,, Providence

Books Received.

ΝΗΣΙΩΤΙΚΑ ΤΡΑΓΟΥΔΙΑ.

INSULAR SONGS.

By YANNI ZERVOS.

The Anglo-Greek Press, London, 2/- post free.

This delightful little collection contains some poems of a truly lyrical inspiration and a simplicity and unaffectedness quite in harmony with the insular spirit of the writer. We would gladly reproduce one of these poems called Νεκρολούλουδα *which we specially commend but we regret that want of space prevent us from doing so.*

L' EMPIRE OTTOMAN

Une Annee de Constitution.

11/24 Juillet, 1908—11/24 Juillet. 1909.

Par N. NICOLAIDES,

Directeur du Journal "L' Orient."

Brusselles, 1909.—Imprimerie Th. Dewarichet, 52, Rue de la Montage.

BACK NUMBERS

of the

HELLENIC HERALD

In reply to repeated inquiries, we beg to inform new subscribers and others, that we have still in stock a limited number of previous issues of the HELLENIC HERALD. We take this opportunity of observing that these previous issues contain a reliable and fully documented account, not otherwise obtainable in concise form, of the recent history of the Near East. They contain moreover numerous valuable and interesting papers by distinguished authorities (both English and Foreign) on the historical, literary and social affairs of the Near East, and particularly of Greece.

A glance at the list of a few articles we give below will give a fair idea of the contents of previous issues.

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A most fascinating description of Greece's natural beauties, by the well-known French writer, GUSTAVE FOUGERES.

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The Finances of the Byzantine Empire.

The Greek Indologist Demetrius Galanos.

Dr. S. Menardos' Lectures at the Oxford University.

The value of the Byzantine and Modern Greek in Hellenic Studies.

Religious Poetry of the Byzantines.

Representative Selections from Modern Greek Authors with parallel English translations.

Early years of the Neo-Greek Theatre.

Queen Caroline's visit to Athens, 1816.

The Eclipse of Philhellenism.

The Building of Sancta Sophia.

National Bank of Greece.

ASSETS, 31st December, 1909.	31st Dec., 1909. * Drachmae.		31st July, 1909. * Drachmae.	
Funds — Cash	4,151,941	63	3,353,186	21
Funds — Ionian Bank, Bonds	314,550	—	491,815	—
Funds — Ditto, of one and two Drachmae	408,824	—	944,573	—
In Foreign Banks — Gold	40,172,037	12	40,077,320	60
In Foreign Banks — Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	70,503	95	283,350	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds — in gold Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper „ 34,617,201.25	60,193,139	25	60,696,320	—
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,687,851	25	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,202,412	86	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	479.981	76	—	—
Bills	21,580,458	32	22,496,191	06
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,383,978	01	3,269,341	06
Advances on Securities	25,155,339	62	20,493,401	84
Advances on Merchandise	7,260,689	42	4,569,183	46
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	69,532,928	83	69,224,348	66
Loans to Communities, Harbours and other legal bodies	47,179,731	35	46,357,015	30
Maturing Loans to Communities, Harbour, etc.	101,764	89	—	—
*Agricultural Drafts	11,410,127	06	14,630,958	90
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,284,062	60	5,350,201	44
Shares in Local Companies	7,574,018	—	7,598,658	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds — Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece — Bank Bonds at 2½%	568,600	—	755,777	75
Sundry Coupons	1,334,659	37	406,354	62
Bank and Premises	9,242,705	26	9,196,924	92
*Doubtful Debts	3,463,940	75	3,427,651	85
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,284,004	46	1,381,313	56
Sundry Accounts	2,338,063	19	2,805,571	41
Sundry Foreign Acconnts	2,160,979	82	2,337,512	46
Redemption of State Participation in the profits of the Bank	1,003,520	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	480,000	—	560,000	—
Commission for the Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in in Bank Bonds	885,955	46	50,000	—
Sundries			479,713	94
Dr	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

LIABILITIES, 31st December, 1909.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank „ 49,820,329.73	125,831,099	84	111,598,905	15
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	7,501,580	56	12,714,932	26
Deposits without Interest	20,668,794	94	28,231,147	70
Demand Notes	1,087,826	71	1,340,364	28
Unclaimed Dividends	177,950	—	723,525	—
Dividends of the last two quarters of 1909	2,000,000	—	—	—
International Financial Control — A/c of payment of Revenues affected — Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes „ 4,282,520.64	4,493,861	84	5,046,158	94
Service of the State Loans—Gold	2,187,519	90	418,971	75
Ditto, in Bank Notes			992,707	97
Service of different loans in Bank notes	22,975	90	—	—
State Deposits, Gold	15,816	70	3,295	78
State Deposits, Bank Notes	70,505	95	15,062	65
State Deposits — For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway — Gold	111,718	26	283,350	83
State Deposits — For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway — Notes	1,104,882	18	2,360	21
State Deposits (bequeth of Syngros)	117,585,023	88	118,779,766	33
Deposits at Interest	39,856,410	—	40,574,160	—
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%				
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes, at 2½%	20,242,900	—	20,367,900	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	2,583,818	—	2,176,306	—
Ditto., Bank Notes at 2½%	1,001,417	50	309,740	—
Savings Bank	13,860,982	70	13,234,498	67
Bills to be paid	916,250	15	—	—
Interest of mortgage loans	1,532,386	18	—	—
Interest of simple loans	451,275	70	—	—
Sundries	280,823	87	1,618,314	79
Dr.	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

*At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachmae is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant.
D. CARATZAS.

Athens, *December* 31, 1909.

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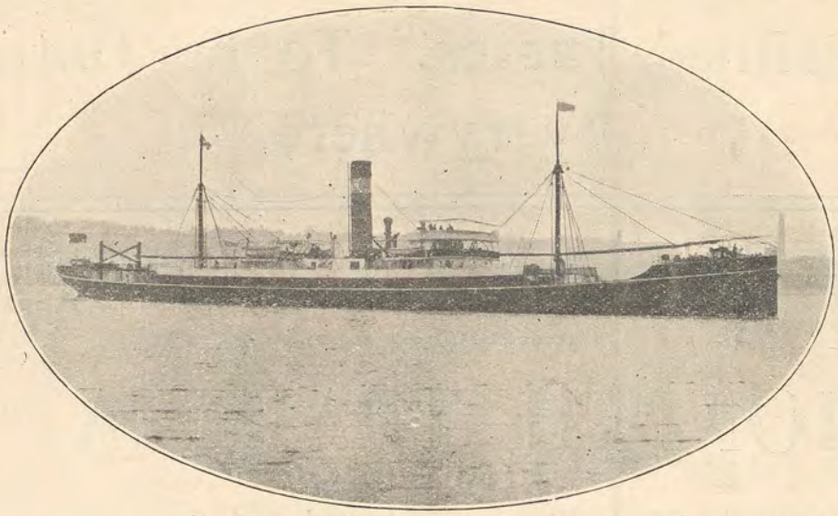

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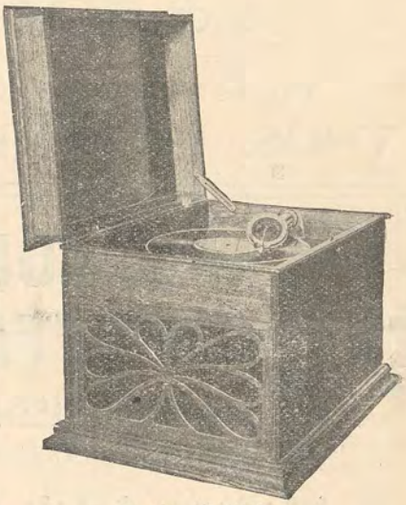

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THE SAME OLD BLUNDERS.

The situation in Turkey, both internal and external, is far from satisfactory, and is calculated to create real anxiety in the minds of all who desire to see a united and progressive Turkey as well as the preservation of peace in the Near East. The root of the trouble is one to which we have referred with concern on not a few previous occasioms. Turkey is governed by men who are dominated ma inly by the spirit of chauvinism instead of political sagacity; and it is this unfortunate circumstance which has ever laid at the root of Turkey's misfortunes. Instead of settling down to the commonplace but altogether wholesome and necessary task of eliminating from the administration of their empire all the causes that brought Turkey to the verge of ruin, and made necessary the recent revolution—namely, wholesale corruption in administrative affairs, absence of the most elementary freedom, insecurity of life and property, and utter neglect of the country's resources—they have devoted their energy to the revival of questions which have no practical bearing on the welfare of Turkey, and might, for a time at least, very conveniently be left alone. The spectre of disappointment has been haunting not only Turkey's sympathisers in the West, where the regeneration of that country and a peaceful solution of the Near Eastern question were ardently expected, but the peoples comprised in the Turkish Empire itself, who looked forward to the Constitution as a means of salvation.

It is now nearly two years since the Constitution was proclaimed, and yet corruption of the fount of justice and a plentiful lack of honesty of purpose are everywhere evident. Indeed, in several quarters the situation has decidedly worsened. While the sense of duty and genuine regard for public welfare are as lacking as ever, the transaction of public business is, if anything, more complicated than before, owing to the fact that the Government functionaries, who under the old *régime* used openly to show the way of acquiring their favour, at present, although still imbued with the old spirit, try to maintain simply the appearance of honesty, which renders the position infinitely more trying. The Government continues to show the same inability to appreciate those qualifications which are necessary to successful administrators, and the same prejudice against conceding the Christian element their rightful share in the holding of public positions, notwithstanding their superior qualifications in the matters of education and training.

We have previously referred to the injustice done to the Christian population by the limitation imposed upon the election of their representatives to the Ottoman Parliament by arbitrary means.

In the Turkish cabinet there are only two Christian members, and these, in spite of their recognised qualifications for the highest ministerial posts, are relegated to quite insignificant offices. Again, out of hundreds of provincial governors, sub-governors and less important officials, the Christians may be counted on the fingers. And even in the army, where from the outset it was proposed to give the Christian element a fair share of representation, there were many blunders committed which aroused dissatisfaction and resentment. But this subject, which is a very important one, will be treated more fully in a future article.

This policy of the new rulers of Turkey is not only contrary to all the principles of constitutional government, but is doing the greatest injury to the

country itself, both by depriving it of such urgently needed help, and by creating in the non-Mussulman element a feeling of disappointment and resentment which cannot fail to prove detrimental to the development of the institutions which the Young Turks claim to have at heart.

THE ALBANIAN RISING.

Turkey's lack of political sagacity, referred to in another article, has lately torn open two of her most dangerous wounds—one in Albania, the other in Crete. In Albania, a government ignorant of local conditions as well as of the character and habits of the people, created a situation which suddenly became a widespread rebellion, comprising all the north and north-eastern regions of Albania. So serious, indeed, became the proportions of the rising that an army of about 40,000 troops, together with a strong force of artillery, was mobilised and despatched to suppress it, with results anything but satisfactory, either from a material or a moral point of view.

The resistance offered by the Albanians was so strenuous that on both sides losses amounting to several thousands were sustained, and a breach has been created which will not only take a long time to heal, but will seriously imperil the peace of Turkey. At present the insurrection seems to have received a check, but it is far from being stamped out. What strikes us as the worst feature of the whole lamentable business is the dangerous methods employed by the Turkish Government in order to end the rising by so-called pacific means and appeals to the jingoistic spirit. While it is extremely doubtful whether these designs of the Turkish Government will achieve the desired end, it is plain that they contain within themselves the elements of complications far more dangerous to Turkey than to her neighbours.

THE CRETAN TROUBLE.

As if Turkey had not enough serious trouble on her hands with the Albanian rising, she is most unwisely endeavouring to involve herself in fresh complications in Crete, which, while not dictated by any practical considerations, nevertheless contain for her many dangerous elements. We have repeatedly recounted in these columns the reasons why Turkish claims in Crete are without a shadow of foundation, and also why plain common-sense and Turkey's own interests demand her acquiescence in the only solution of the Cretan difficulty—the union of the Island with Greece. This is a solution which everyone now recognises as inevitable, it is in accordance with the oft-repeated and unshaken wishes of the Cretans themselves, and has been virtually assented to by the Great Powers. The keeping open of this rankling sore, while it wastes precious time and valuable energies much needed by Turkey elsewhere, keeps in perpetual estrangement two neighbouring nations whose most vital interests demand the closest co-operation and harmony.

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GLADSTONE AND GREECE.

III.

The Don Pacifico Case, 1850.

"The people of England are careless about foreign politics and insulated in their habits." —Mr. Roebuck, House of Commons, 24th *June*, 1850.

As we have seen in the preceding article, the attitude of the Greek Government was not an arbitrary one.

In order to introduce the reader to the atmosphere in which this sad conflict was carried on in the House of Commons, and to illustrate the knowledge and feelings which actuated the policy of Lord Palmerston, we give, apart from Gladstone's peroration and clear statement of the case, extracts from speeches of members defending the Government's policy.

Mr. Roebuck, who came to the defence of the Government, referred to the case of Finlay in the following terms:

"The claim arose from a protocol entered into by Russia and France which enabled Turkish proprietors to sell their land in Greece and under which protocol Mr. Finlay acquired the property. Part of his property has been taken for the purpose of forming a garden wherein His Majesty King Otho might disport himself at the expense of the subjects of this country." King Otho, we can easily see, was not much liked by Mr. Roebuck and his friends, and indeed we find Mr. Roebuck saying: "I find in Greece a monarch coming from Bavaria, a man educated at a small German Court, and with all the feelings that such an education must create, and acting in everything under the instruction of Russia and Austria. I must confess that, with such a counsel and such diplomacy, I feel somewhat degraded when I hear of the name of England being mixed up in any of these discussions." Further he paints thus the political situation in Greece. "But Athens has always been the focus of hot and busy intrigue. We have seen evinced their constant sympathy with Russian diplomacy, which always looks steadily at one point and has the same end in view—to have Constantinople. The same influences are now at work. Russia is the great inspirer, Austria being but a humble instrument and slave."

Not more than ten years had elapsed from the date of Mr. Roebuck's speech, when England joined in this intrigue, and with great success; to wit, the fall of Otho the Bavarian, who was "educated at a small German Court," and whose sole ambition, history has shewn, was the progress and prosperity of his realm, although his means for the attainment of his wishes were often arbitrary and not always the best and most suitable in the circumstances. However, recent events have fully justified his autocratic tendencies. If, immediately after the declaration of independence a less democratic constitutional monarchy had been adopted in Greece, the Greeks would have gone through a gradual evolution; from a state of absolutism and tyranny, damaging to their political conscience, they would have arrived at a semi-monarchical constitution which would have educated them for their rights and duties as free citizens of a constitutional monarchy.

Mr. Osborne also was one who spoke with bitterness, and exhibited a rather curious opinion on the subject. "I must say, with regard to this contemptible discussion about the pinchbeck Monarch of Greece, that, in my opinion" (a very wise restriction indeed), "the original sin lay in *ever setting up a Russian puppet in the Levant.* I do so on other grounds than his being merely a puppet of Russia. I look upon that act as a breach of our absolute engagements with Turkey, because it ought to be recollected that at the Congress

of Verona* they not only refused to receive the Greek Deputies, but Lord Stangford, our Ambassador at Constantinople, was deputed to make to the Turkish Government a communication." He then read out the communication, which was to the effect that the Congress of Verona regarded the Greek question as one belonging to the internal affairs of the Porte, in which no foreign power ought to intermeddle.

One can gather from these extracts that Greece was made the scapegoat of the rivalry of England and Russia, or to put it in Gladstone's own words, "from jealousy of Russia," and this is not a solitary example. We do not propose, however, to deal with this subject in this place. On this point we feel bound to refer to Mr. Cobden's speech. "It is said that the noble Viscount (Lord Palmerston), intended this demonstration at Athens as a menace to Russia! But how does this answer its purpose as a demonstration against Russia? The moment the Court of Russia hears of the demonstration, I find that they send a remonstrance against this country, a remonstrance couched in language I never expected to hear from a semi-barbarous country like Russia to this. Read, I ask you, the extraordinary language used by Count Nesselrode to Lord Palmerston, and then read the answer of the latter, and see how different is the tone adopted by him to a country which is powerful, compared with that he makes use of to one that is weak.'"

Other members said that the state of Greece was terrible, that its future was hopeless, and, in particular, Sir E. Verney read extracts from private letters which described Greece and its government in the darkest colours, and as a place where lawlessness was respected and torture was a common practice. Mr. Cockburn, who answered Gladstone's peroration, stated that it contained mis-statements, and did his best to support the Government's policy, declaring that no justice and no impartial courts existed in Greece, and, generally, fiercely attacked Greece. Of course, this was not the best way to defend an aggressive policy. In general, a very hostile attitude was exhibited towards Greece existed. Rumours and false reports were immediately accepted and retailed in the House of Commons.

We are not going to trouble ourselves to repudiate any of the allegations which were made against the Greek Government, for deliberate purposes. Every act or small mistake was terribly magnified. But even if we admit for a moment that abusive and cruel acts were committed by minor officials of the Government, we must bear in mind that Greece had freed herself only twenty years before the epoch we are dealing with, and it was therefore quite natural that the evils and vices inherent in the Turkish rule and race should still remain in Greece for a time.

As far as justice is considered, there might have been summary dismissal of a judge, but on this point, curiously enough, one of the claimants, Finlay, as we shall see, had consented that his case should be submitted to arbitration, and had stated that he would be satisfied with the result. It was also a strange thing that Lord Palmerston omitted, purposely or not, to lay before the House the letter of Mr. Wyse dated the 15th of October, in which he reported to his Lordship that Turkey had consented that his claims should be submitted to arbitration.

On the 27th of June, Gladstone rose to make his first speech on foreign affairs, and amidst great applause he attacked Lord Palmerston, asserting that "during the time when the administration is in "the hands of the noble Lord, the country is too "commonly apt to be near the very verge of war; and "that although Lord Palmerston was a Liberal, it "unfortunately happened, however, that in the case "of Greece the noble Lord did not interfere on the side "of liberty against despotism."

* Held in 1822, a little while after the massacres of Chios.

Gladstone repudiated altogether the attempt to contrast British conduct in Greece with what other countries may have done on other occasions, and after saying that "as the claims against Greece were already largely discussed, both in the House of Commons and the House of Lords, we shall therefore put aside with a very few words all those cases which are not essential to the main issue," he continued:—

"First I shall put aside the case of the "Fantôme." "I fully admit and assert that it was the duty of the "noble lord to exact an apology in that case from the "Greek Government. But I would observe that, "before resorting to the use of force, it was the duty of "the noble lord to have put plainly and categorically "his demand for such an apology; but this he has "never done. There is a strange and inexplicable "gap in the correspondence, reaching from a date "soon after the event to that very 16th of January "when this subject was summarily revived in the list "of final demands upon Greece, to be satisfied within "twenty-four hours. *We never had asked in plain "terms for an apology, and Greece never had in reply "refused one.* My belief is that it would not have "been refused."

The facts in this case were, as a matter of course, set out in blue books and stated by Palmerston and other hon. Members. As Gladstone does not set them out, we give an extract of Cobden's splendid speech. He said:—"Then comes the "Fantôme" case. A British "ship-of-war is lying off Patras, a boat goes on shore "at 9 o'clock at night, when it is dark; the coxswain "lands, not at the usual place of disembarkation, but "on the beach; on his return, he is taken into custody "by two officials and, along with a midshipman and a "boat's crew, conveyed to the station, in default of "not giving a satisfactory account of himself; the "Greeks, bear you in mind, not speaking one word of "English, nor the Englishmen one word of Greek. "Now suppose a Frenchman landing in the same way "from a boat by night, near Brighton, not at the "ordinary landing place, but on the beach, and "observed by preventive officers, neither party under-"standing one word of the others' language, and "mutual explanation being consequently impossible. "Why, the blockademen would at once put the landing "party down as a French smuggler, and would take "him into custody, and convey him to the station, "where, an interpreter being procured, the explanation "required would be supplied, and the arrested person "be dismissed with all proper apology. This was "precisely what was done with the midshipman. As "soon as an interpreter was found, and it was ascer-"tained who the Englishman was, he was at once "liberated and respectfully conveyed to his ship."

As stated by Cobden, this was due to a mistake which is easily explained when we see that the boat and crew were mistaken as belonging to a British ship, the "Spitfire," which had some time before helped the Greek revolutionaries, Boulgarakis and Pettas, to escape from Greece, and again it was rumoured and believed that this vessel, the "Spitfire," was bound for Greece to land insurgents and create a revolution and overthrow the Government. The Greek Government gave this excuse, and it is asserted that the "Spitfire" endeavoured to land rebels during the night.

(To be continued.

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THE NEW GREEK BATTLESHIP.

The Greek Navy has been lately augmented by the addition of a new battleship, the *George Averoff*. The vessel was purchased in Italy, from Messrs. Orlando & Co., of Livorno, and is the sister ship of the armoured cruiser *Pisa*, constructed by the same firm for the Italian Government. The *George Averoff* was launched on the 10th of March, and was given the name of the illustrious patriot and benefactor of Greece who bequeathed a part of his fortune to form among other things the nucleus of a fund for the construction of a war vessel for the Greek Navy. The ceremony of launching was a very impressive one, and served as an occasion for the expression of those fraternal feelings which have always characterised the relations subsisting between the people and the Governments of Greece and Italy.

Admiral Marquis Ducarne represented the Minister of Marine, who was unable to carry out his intention of being present at the ceremony. Besides M. Orlando and the managing staff of the works, there were present many other eminent Italian personages, and a considerable number of journalists. There were also many distinquished Greeks among the assemblage, who imparted an impressive tone to the ceremony by the enthusiasm and the patriotic feeling which they displayed.

The Greek Government was represented by the Greek Minister in Rome, M. Metaxas, and the Greek communities of Livorno, Florence, and Spezia by their respective Consuls.

After the launching ceremony had been successfully performed, the guests present were invited to a sumptuous banquet, at which the host, M. Orlando, made a brilliant speech, thanking the Greek Government for having so honoured an Italian shipbuilding firm. M. Orlando also referred to the great progress which had lately been made in Italian shipbuilding, and expressed a fervent wish that the battleship would contribute to the glory of the Navy of Greece and the realisation of the desires of her people.

After M. Orlando had spoken, Admiral Ducarne said : " I have been greatly touched by the honour which the Minister of Marine has conferred upon me, in asking me to represent him on such an auspicious occasion, and of allowing me to extend to the Greek nation a fraternal greeting, and to express my ardent wish for the triumph of her national aspirations. Greece has lately given a great impulse to her mercantile marine, and has, in consequence, reaped great success. Indeed, everywhere we see the Greek flag floating over merchant vessels. May it be that the *George Averoff* shall prove the forerunner of a great and powerful fleet, which will effectually protect the interests of Hellenism.

M. Metaxas, on behalf of the Greek Government, thanked both M. Orlando and the gallant Admiral for the kind wishes which they had expressed, and for the sympathy with the Greek nation shown by the Italian Government and people.

Although the *George Averoff* is the sister ship of the war-vessel *Pisa*, she differs from her in some important details to meet the requirements of the Greek Government. She is 141 metres in length, 21 metres 10 wide, and 12 metres 25 in height. Her armament consists of 4 guns of 22.4 cm. placed in armoured turrets, 8 guns of 19 cm., 4 on each side, also in armoured turrets, 16 guns of 7.6 cm., of which 14 are placed on deck, and two above the armoured turrets, in which the largest guns are placed. All the artillery equipment is of the latest pattern, and has been produced in England by the famous firm of Armstrong and Co., of Newcastle-on-Tyne.

The Necessity for Scientific Medical Nomenclature.

We have pleasure in giving below the summary of a lecture lately delivered before the New York Academy of Medicine, by Dr. A. Rose, who has made a special study of correct scientific Terminology as used in medicine, and is the Author of several treatises on the subject. Dr. Rose is, moreover, an enthusiastic student of Modern Greek. We have every sympathy with the views he puts forward, which are not only of great philological interest, but of extreme value to all interested in the advancement of science. We hope that Englishmen of science, who are never slow to help a useful undertaking, will give the matter their attention, and help to bring about a cordial understanding on the subject.

Socrates, defending himself before his judges, said : " All my life long have I been attempting to expose the weaknesses of my compatriots and to incite them to correct their errors. In future they will probably fall to slumber, if God, out of pity, does not send another man to arouse them." And indeed, not one man, but many great men, have appeared to enlighten the Greeks, men who have created the highest civilization and who have left to the world a rich inheritance. Aristotle, Plato and Hippocrates have continued to be, up to our time, the teachers of mankind.

While the civilised peoples of all times owe gratitude for the rich inheritance which the Greeks have left to them, it is especially our present time which more than any other should be reminded to keep in view the precious benefits of classical civilisation. It seems as though at present money and comfort were considered the highest aims of man in this world and science and art were valued first of all according to the material gain which they may bring.

In view of this materialistic tendency of our time it is appropriate to show to our youth, to our society, that there have existed men who paid little attention to those things which are admired above all others at present, who devoted their lives to ideals and to science, who have become immortal benefactors of mankind.

When we familiarize ourselves with, and indulge in the generous inheritance of classical antiquity, we imitate Juno, the wife of Jupiter, who every year took the wonderful bath which rejuvenated her. Without this rejuvenation, without this spiritual revival, men who are at the head of civilization will soon be in danger of becoming savages and *degrading* themselves.

Considered from this point of view, to acquire a knowledge of the Greek world is not only a sacred duty to all who have science at heart, but it is at the same time a sacred tribute of gratitude which we owe to the great men of antiquity, and it is the first condition of our existence as civilized men, *the correct measure of our value as men of learning.*

The names of new scientific inventions and discoveries are mostly Greek or new-formations from the Greek language, and this is natural enough, because the foundation of medical knowledge, of philosophy and of almost all sciences was Greek, and the sciences have been transmitted to the world together with their Greek onomatology.

The language of medicine is the result of its historical development ; the chief constituent part of the linguistic treasure of natural philosophy is contained also in the confines of the classical languages. It is by this means that the sciences still bear to-day the stamp of intercommunity, simplicity and internationality, and this fact makes it *indispensable for every physician and natural philosopher to acquire a knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages.*

A physician who has no knowledge of Greek and Latin is not properly equipped for scientific work. Whoever admits that Greek is necessary to the physician—who more than any man has to enter deeply into every sphere of human life—must also admit that, even the best physician who has no knowledge of Greek would be a great deal better if he had not neglected that language which is the crown and flower of the highest culture.

It gave me the greatest satisfaction to read in a paper the views expressed by our president, Dr. Wyeth, in an address on "The Medical Student," delivered before the Mississippi Valley Medical Association in the year 1890. He said "The decline of Greek in the classical curriculum is certainly, so far as medicine is concerned, a great misfortune . . . . In Dunglison's Medical Dictionary there are approximately forty-one thousand words of which twenty thousand are of Greek origin and twenty-one thousand are from the Latin, English, French and Saxon. Just think of it. The medical student without a fair knowledge of Greek doesn't understand the etymology of half of the words." Indeed, of all that we have read on the question of Greek in our colleges, this view of Dr. Wyeth, I think, is the most noteworthy.

Another mistake of our colleges is that no attention is paid to the study of the Greek language as spoken and written by the educated classes of Greece to-day. The study of living Greek offers a broad field of linguistic, philological, literary and practical importance. The classical literature of the Greeks is but a portion of the Greek language ; without knowledge, without study of the

complete language, the one spoken to-day included, much of the classics must remain unintelligible.

Not only the Greeks of the classical period, but also the Greeks of to-day deserve our highest admiration and gratitude: the latter because they preserve the treasure of the ancients, the treasures of art and the purity of the language.

During the year 1908, an important event happened in Greece which well deserves our attention: it was the appointment of a committee to prepare and to publish a historic lexicon of the Greek language, embracing all periods from Homer to the present day. The members of this committee are men who are known already in the world of science. There is first of all Professor Hatzidakis, whose name and writings are the most important of any Greek philologist of the present time, and who inaugurated the idea of the great work, the new Thesaurus of the Greek language, as it is called. Another member of this committee is Professor Menardos, a pupil of Hatzidakis, and now professor of modern Greek at the University of Oxford.

This new Thesaurus will be a fitting monument to the immortality of the Greek language; it will comprise all its forms and phases, and it will show that the Greek nation has remained an entity both ethnographically and linguistically, from the earliest times to the present day.

It is true, the gigantic undertaking is yet in its initial stage; all kinds of difficulties have to be overcome, even the preparations require a great deal of time and a large sum of money, and it is well known that the Greek government, on the subsidies of which the editors have to rely, is not rich. But considering that the modern Greeks are not the only heirs of the culture which their forefathers have left to the world, that all civilized people of Europe and of America are co-heirs, and that all owe a sacred duty and have a direct interest in the Thesaurus, it is to be hoped that they will all come to its aid, so that the monument of the glorious language of three thousand years may be better understood; for such better understanding will mean a great gain to every one, but chiefly to the world of science and especially to physicians.

Lavoisier, in his striking words on the importance of correct onomatology, says: "The logic of science is essentially connected with scientific language . . . . perfection in science is impossible without perfection in language . . . . however true the facts may be, however correct the ideas developed by facts, only wrong impressions will be transmitted so long as the expressions by which they are communicated are not exact."

Lucas Papaioannou, the greatest Greek anatomist of his time (he died in the year 1890), who was also a distinguished philologist, laid the foundation *of the only possible scientific system of anatomical terminology*. He studied the writings of the ancient Greek philosophers and physicians with regard to their onomatology, utilized all that was of importance to the present age, and introduced 2,700 new-formations which he had constructed according to the laws of the language as only a Greek who is a physician as well as a philologist can do. The nomenclature of Papaioannou has been introduced into Greek medical literature.

While it is necessary to acquire a knowledge of Greek, of the actual spoken Greek, in order to apply Greek technical terms correctly, *it is not always implied* that we foreigners are competent to coin new words from the Greek. This work we have to leave, naturally enough, to native men of learning, and, as far as medical terms are concerned, to the comparatively few of them who are at the same time physicians and thorough philologists. This fact is well illustrated in the columns of the medical journal edited by John Phoustanos, who is also the editor and publisher of another great patriotic work, a complete edition of all the ancient Greek medical writers, not only those that are already obtainable in book form, but also of those that have gone out of print, and even those which exist only in manuscript. The texts are faithful reproductions of the originals, free from the errors that are to be found in current editions of the classical works.

The work of M. Phoustanos is a purely patriotic one, and that fact makes the undertaking all the more creditable to him. Medical scholarship cannot fail to be immensely benefited by this great work, one that is sure to heighten the prestige of modern Greece in medicine.

Dr. Phoustanos has almost finished a Dictionary of all the terms used by the ancient Greek physicians as well as the numerous names in our present medical onomatology. Barbarous distortions of Greek are corrected in this lexicon according to the rules of the Greek language.

One of the distinguished men of the University of Athens, Riga Nikolaidis, professor of physiology, has in his classical book on physiology, like Papaioannou in his text book on anatomy, constructed correct Greek terms for new conceptions which have been highly approved by the philologists and are accepted by the medical profession of Greece.

Hatzidakis has for a long time suggested that the scholars of Europe and America should co-operate with those of Greece. Indeed, as long as physicians and natural philosophers of the whole civilised world continue to name their inventions and discoveries by Greek terms, such co-operation will be the only means of doing away with difficulties and confusion.

One of the Greek scholars who has done noble work in revising medical terms, is Dr. Basilios Leonardos, Director of the Museum of Inscriptions; who is, on account of his position regarded as an authority. Fortunately for us, he is also a physician, a graduate in medicine of a German university.

Speaking of the best men of learning, the greatest scholars of Greece, we have to mention Kleon Stephanos, who is willing to aid us. His ethnographical and especially his anthropological labors I have described in my book "Christian Greece and Living Greek." He is, like Leonardos, a physician, a graduate of a German university, and also like Leonardos a profound philologist and linguist.

Permit me, Mr. President, after having demonstrated the necessity of a scientific onomatology, to suggest that the New York Academy appoint a committee to communicate and to co-operate with our Greek brethren who are engaged in this onomatological work for the benefit of medical science.

ON THE TRANSITION OF GREEK FROM ANCIENT TO MODERN.

III.

In his last lecture, Dr. Menardos dwelt specially on the style of the Gospels, and its subsequent influence on the spoken and written Greek. The writers of the New Testament, he said, had to be examined separately, because there was not a special "New Testament Greek, obeying its own laws," as Blass thought. The Evangelists, like all the writers of that period, simply followed the Attic as closely as they could. Fortunately they were not able to do this very effectively.

The Gospels of St. Matthew and St. Mark, and also that of St. Peter, the Epistle of St. Barnabas, and the *Pastor* of Hermas, which are known by the name of the *Apocrypha*, were designed for a narrow circle of readers who belonged to a class occupying a socially inferior position, although St. Luke and St. Paul, whom Eusebius called "the most skilful in diction of all," were fully abreast of the literary style of their period, and used the Attic to a considerable extent. The Epistles of St. Peter and the Revelation, too, contain a good many words quite strange to illiterate people, not only of Palestine, but even of Athens. Yet it is just this artless mixture of popular Greek, Latin, Hebrew, Attic, and even poetical words which is the peculiar charm of every one of the writers of the New Testament, and which created the general impression that their books were the productions of uneducated men.

Viewed from this standpoint, their appearance in the Greek-speaking world connected with the Septuagint can be compared with the advent of the earliest books in the Neo-Latin languages. Since the books of the New Testament were officially recognised as the holy books of the state, and then of the Greek nation, and since people were everywhere accustomed to hear them referred to with profound respect, it was natural that their style should come to be regarded as the typical style of Christian writers. One of the first consequences of this change was that Attic learning no longer held undivided sway, and the artificially preserved language was "turned out of doors," so to speak *θύραθεν*, *ἔξωθεν*, as they said.

The wide circulation of the holy books seems to have hastened the disappearance of the ancient dialects which had till then survived in several Greek-speaking countries, In the Peloponnesus, up to the times of Strabo and Pausanias dialects had been spoken which were regarded as Doric. Of course these dialects were in a state of decadence, because the only feature of the Doric which then survived was the long *ᾱ* and even this distinguishing mark has been altogether banished from existing dialects. There is but one dialect of the Peloponnesus, the so-called Tzaconic, that preserves four main characteristics of ancient Laconic; and it is only by the names of some of the islands that we are reminded of their Doric inhabitants: for instance Παγᾶ instead of πηγή in Chephalonia, Μίλατο instead of Μίλητος in Crete, Δᾶμος instead of Δῆμος in Calymnos, Βᾶσα instead of Βῆσ(σ)α in Cyprus.

With reference to the lingual relationships of the Greeks we have an interesting passage of the Assyrian father Tatianus, who lived in the second century. In his *Oratio adversus Graecos*, written in an archaic Greek

style, he says: "You are the only people who cannot agree even in your language; because the Dorians have not the same dialect as those who come from Athens, and the Aeolians do not speak like the Ionians." This criticism is not literally justifiable, but it serves to indicate the linguistic anarchy which prevailed among the Greeks, not only in speaking, but also in writing. It proves, too, that this anarchy was in great part counteracted by Christianity. It may be said that the Gospel had served as a model for the style which later became current among Christians. As an instance of this we have the fact that its translation into German by Luther furnished a model for the style of modern German.

In the style of the Gospels are written the whole service, the acts of the Synods and the works of the real successors of St. Mark and St. Matthew, viz. Παχούμιος, Παλλάδιος, Πολύβιος, Ρινοκουρούρων, Ζωσιμᾶς, Μόσχος or Εὐκρατᾶς, Λεόντιος, of Neapolis, who narrate the lives of the great men of Christianity, namely, the saints. The writers are not concerned with Atticism, and they dream of nothing but the salvation of their own soul and the souls of their brethren.

The poets of the Greek church also derived their style from the Old and the New Testaments. The oldest of them had no conception of what prosody meant, and they regarded the Greek philosophers and poets and rhetoricians simply as agents of Satan. Their metre is rhythm, based of course on the accent. In the sixth century A.D. the πολιτικὸς στίχος appears, and has remained the chief form of Greek verse till the present day.

Besides the poets, the chroniclers—that is, the popular historiographers—also wrote in the style of the Church, and, as these writers were easily understood by everybody, and not only made the tour of the Empire but travelled among the peoples of the Orient—Syrians, Arabs, Armenians, Georgians, Russians, Bulgarians, Servians, as narrated in early traditions, it can easily be understood what an immense influence was exercised by Greek in mediaeval times. The personality and the works of these chroniclers are not more precise than those of the ancient rhapsodists. Their number in the various libraries is endless, and, strictly speaking, there is no responsible authority for any of their narratives.

At the same time, it would be altogether erroneous, Dr. Menardos added, to imagine that all these works, written by men versed in the ancient literature are simply not worth reading and are to be regarded solely as linguistic monuments. On the contrary the hymn-writers of the Church are real poets, and one of them, Romanos, according to Krumbacher, who devoted much study to him, is perhaps the greatest ecclesiastical poet that the world has ever seen. (See another lecture by Dr. Menardos in the *Hellenic Herald*, No. 28).

The works of the Christian writers who portray the life of the numerous monasteries and nunneries of Egypt, Thebaid, Palestine, and even Mesopotamia, are quite as interesting as those of any modern novelist. For instance, Palladios' *History to Lausos* (ἡ πρὸς Λαῦσον ἱστορία) and Eucrata's Λειμὼν contain a fresh surprise and a new charm in every chapter. Perhaps the soul of no other society has ever been revealed so vividly as is the soul of the early Christian communities in the unaffected style of these monks. Of the chroniclers Malalas, whose only extant MS. is preserved in the Bodleian Library, is the leading example.

Now what about the secular literature, namely, the works of the literary men of Constantinople? They had to continue the literary traditions of Alexandria and Athens, as far as the times allowed. They wrote poetry in ancient metres, reproducing Homer, Anacreon, Euripides, as well as history, in the Attic, and not omitting Xenophon or even Thucydides. Their official style, however, bore no relationship to their everyday language.

The excessive conservatism of these writers nevertheless contributed to the conservatism of the whole Greek language in mediaeval times, a conservatism which is unique in the history of living languages. Between the style of St. Mark and that of Ptochoprodromos there is no essential difference any more than there is between the verse of Ptochoprodromos and the popular verse of modern times. This curious fact must be attributed to the union of all the Greeks under the hegemony of Constantinople and to the influence of the Church. With the doctrines of the Gospel the Church also preserved much of its language.

At this point Dr. Menardos quoted some results of the investigations of Prof. Hatzidakis, vice-president of the Committee for the *Historical Lexicon* of the Greek language. According to these investigations, out of the 6840 Homeric words 3455 had become antiquated before the time of the Attic writers. Of the remainder, about one-third, viz. 1165, are employed at the present day. Of the 4900 words of the New Testament, however, about half are still in common use, and only 400 are quite unintelligible, namely, the poetical words of St. Paul, and some of Latin and Hebrew origin. The conclusion arrived at by Prof. Hatzidakis, is that, during the 400 years from Homer to Herodotus, Greek seems to have changed much more than it did during the 1800 years from the time of the Evangelists till the present day.

"My conclusion, gentlemen," said Dr. Menardos, "will be rather like an exhortation. I invite you to extend your Greek studies, and, following Greek from its beginning to the present time, add the valuable treasure of the living dialects to the data of the inscriptions and the MSS. The classification of this immense quantity of material will prove a magnificent climax to the work of 3000 years, and will be found not only a highly scientific undertaking, but also a real scientific pleasure. By believers it used to be said, regarding the numerous monasteries of the Orient which I have mentioned, that their chanting could be continuously heard, when descending from Mount Sinai to Jerusalem. I believe that every true friend of the Greek Muses will recognise in a popular poem the familiar sound of the poetry which the Muses bestowed on Hesiod upon Mount Helicon."

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DEPOSITS RECEIVED AND CURRENT ACCOUNTS OPENED ON FAVORABLE TERMS

Modern Greek Literature.

Aristotelis Valaorites occupies a foremost place among Modern Greek poets. In language as well as in choice of subject he more closely identifies himself with popular Greek poetry than does any other writer, with the possible exception of Crystallis The following extract is taken from his epic poem "KYRA PHROSYNE," which is one of the best of his numerous productions, and which, with its vein of early nineteenth century romance nevertheless contains a strong suggestion of the Homeric spirit.

Aristotelis Valaorites was born at Santa Maura, (Leucas) in the year 1824, and died in the same Island in 1879.

. . . . . .

Ἦταν ὁ Δράκος γέροντας, ὀρθὸς σὰν κυπαρίσσι,
Τὰ χρόνια δὲν ἐλύγισαν τὸ φοβερό του αὐχένα.
Ὡς τὰ νεφρὰ τοῦ σέρνεται ἡ κάτασπρή του χῆτη
Καὶ τὰ γυμνὰ τὰ στήθη του μαυρίζουν λογγωμένα.
Εἶναι τὰ μάτια του ἀητοί, τὸ μέτωπό του βράχος,
Καὶ μὲς 'ς τὸ βράχο ἐρρίζωσαν σὰν δυὸ κισσοὶ τὰ
Περήφανο τὸ μέτωπο, ψηλὸ καὶ χιονισμένο, [φρύδια.
Γυρεύει ἀκόμη πόλεμο σὰν τὸ βουνὸ τῆς Κιάφας.
Τὸ πάτωμα τοῦ παλατιοῦ τὰ πόδια του κλονίζουν
Καὶ τἄρματα, ποῦ κρέμοντο τριγύρω καρφωμένα,
Ἐγνώρισαν τὸ πάτημα τοῦ φοβεροῦ τοῦ κλέφτη
Κ' ἐξύπνησαν κ' ἐβρόντησαν, γιὰ νὰ τὸν χαιρετήσουν.
Ὁ τοῖχος ἀντιβούησε, κι' ὁ Δράκος 'ς τὴ φωνή τους
Γιὰ πρώτη κ' ὕστερη φορὰ ἔνοιωσε λίγο δάκρυ,
Ποῦ ἐθάμβωσε τὰ μάτια του. Εὐλογημένο δάκρυ!

. . . . . .

ΑΛΗΣ

Ποιὸς εἶσαι σύ, παληόγερε. καὶ μ' ἀγριοκυττάζεις;

ΔΡΑΚΟΣ

Δράκο μὲ λένε, Ἀλήπασα, καὶ Δράκος θὰ πεθάνω.

ΑΛΗΣ

Γονάτισε, προσκύνησε, κ' εἶμαι καλλίτερός σου.

ΔΡΑΚΟΣ

Δὲν ἐγονάτισα ποτέ, παρὰ 'ς τὸ μετερίζι.
Ἀλλοῦ δὲν ἐπροσκύνησα, παρὰ 'ς τὴν ἐκκλησιά μου.

ΑΛΗΣ

Ἀκόμη μ' ἀνδρειεύεσαι! Ἔλα 'ς τὸ νοῦ σου, Δράκο,
Καὶ λάβε χάρη τὴ ζωή. Προσκύνα, παραδώσου.

ΔΡΑΚΟΣ

Ἔχει ἡ καρδιά μου κόκκαλο, Ἀλῆ, καὶ δὲ λυγίζει,
Τοῦ κάκου νὰ παιδεύεσαι, κόψε με, κρέμασέ με.

ΑΛΗΣ

Τί νὰ σὲ κόψω; ἐκούφωσες. Ἡ φλέβα σου δὲν ἔχει
Γιὰ νὰ μοῦ βάψῃ τὸ σπαθὶ ἕνα ποτῆρι αἷμα.
Προσκύνα τὸ Βιζήρη σου, κ' ἔλα 'ς τὴ δούλεψή του.

. . . . . .

Drakos was an old man, but straight as a cypress,
Years had not bent his invincible neck;
Down to his waist fell his hoary locks,
And his naked breast was shaggy as a forest;
His eyes like eagles', his forehead a rock,
And in that rock, like two ivy-clusters, his eyebrows rooted.
His proud forehead, lofty and white,
Still seeks for war, like the mount of * Kiafa.
The floor of the palace trembles 'neath his feet,
And the trophied arms that graced the palace walls,
Knowing the foot-steps of the terrible *Kleft*,
Awoke and clashed together to salute him;
The walls resounded, and Drakos, at their voice.
For the first and only time, felt a solitary tear
Dim his eyes—Blessed tear!

. . . . . .

ALI.

Who art thou, withered man, that fiercely lookest on me?

DRAKOS.

Drakos, I'm called, Ali Pacha, and Drakos I shall die.

ALI.

Kneel, and do me homage, because I am thy better.

DRAKOS.

I never knelt but at the post of fight, and never rendered homage but in church.

ALI.

Still dost thou play the brave? Come to thy senses, Drakos,
And thou shalt be spared. Do homage, give thyself up.

DRAKOS.

My heart is hard as bone, Ali, and cannot bend,
In vain thou troublest thyself; kill me, hang me.

ALI.

And wherefore kill thee? Thou art withered. Thy veins
Hold not a cup of blood to dye my sword.
Reverence thy Vezir, and come, take service under me.

*Kiafa is the famous Mountain of Souli, in Epirus.

ΔΡΑΚΟΣ

Λῦσε τὰ χέρια μου νὰ ἰδῇς, Ἀλῆ, ἂν ἦμαι κούφιος·
Ποτάμι εἶναι τὸ αἷμα μου, κ' ὅπου χυθῇ θὰ πνίξῃ.
Κόψε με, σοῦπα, κόψε με, δὲ θέλω τὸ ψωμί σου·
Ἂν ἔχῃς σκύλους ρίξε το, δός το τοῦ Βελῆ Γκέκα.

ΒΕΛΗ ΓΚΕΚΑΣ

Ὁ Βελῆ Γκέκας τῶφαγε καὶ τώρα τρώει κ' ἐσένα.

ΔΡΑΚΟΣ

Μ' ἐξάφνισες 'ς τὸν ὕπνο μου, δὲν εἶσαι παλληκάρι.
Μὲ τὸ ψωμὶ τ' Ἀλήπασα ἔγινες χήρα μάνα.
Πῶς δὲ θυμᾶσαι τὴ βραδειὰ 'ς τὰ Πέντε τὰ Πηγάδια,
Ποῦ σ' ἔκραξα, σοῦ φώναξα μὲς ἀπὸ τὸ καρτέρι,
Νὰ βγῇς νὰ πολεμήσωμεν οἱ δυό μας, Βελῆ Γκέκα,
Καὶ σὺ δὲν ἀποκρίθηκες κ' ἐκρύφτηκες 'ς τὸ λόγγο;
Ἂν ἤθελα, σ' αἱμάτονα, σ' ἔπιανα ζωντανόνε,
Καὶ δὲν ἐκαταδέχτηκα, γιατὶ μὲ λένε Δράκο!

. . . . . .

Ὁ Βελῆ Γκέκας ἄχνισε κ' ἄπλωσε 'ς τὸ μαχαῖρι.

. . . . . .

ΑΛΗΣ

Εἶσαι Σουλιώτης; . . . Πᾶρτέ τον χάρισμά σας,
Μὴ τὸν χασομερήσετε. Μ' ἔψησε τόσα χρόνια·
Ἦλθε καιρὸς ταῖς χάραις του νὰ τοῦ πλερώσω τώρα.
Μηνύστε το τοῦ Σαμουήλ, τρισάγιο νὰ τοῦ ρίξῃ,
Γιατ' εἶναι ἀξεμολόγητος κ' ἡ γῆ δὲ θὰ τὸν λυώσῃ,
Συρέτε, στρῶστε τἄλογα, τροχίστε τὰ σπαθιά σας,
Κ' ἐβγᾶτε 'ς τὸ Ξερόμερο, φᾶτε βουνὰ καὶ λόγγους,
Καὶ μὴ γυρίσετε 'ς ἐμὲ καὶ μὴ φανερωθῆτε,
Ἂν πρῶτα δὲ μοῦ πιάσετε τοὺς δυὸ Κατσαντωναίους.

. . . . . .

Καὶ μὲ τὸ χέρι ἐπρόσταξε νὰ τραβηχθοῦν νὰ φύγουν.
Ὁ Δράκος τὸν ἐκύτταζε καὶ βγαίνει τραγουδῶντας.
"Σαράντα χρόνια ἐνήστεψα μὲ τῆς Τουρκιᾶς τὸ αἷμα,
Καὶ σήμερα τὸ πάσχα μου τὸ Σοῦλι θὰ γιορτάσῃ.
Φάγε, Βελῆ, τὴ σάρκα μου, φάγε τὰ γηρατειά μου,
Νὰ βάλῃς αἷμα 'ς τὴν καρδιά, ψυχὴ μὲς 'ς τὸ κουφάρι,
Πρὶν ἔβγῃς 'ς τὸ Ξερόμερο καὶ βρῇς τὸν Κατσαντώνη."

. . . . . .

DRAKOS.

Unbind my hands and see if I am withered.
My blood is like a river, and shall devastate where 'tis shed,
Kill me, I tell thee, kill me; I do not want thy bread.
Throw it to the dogs; give it to Veli Ghegha.*

VELI GHEGHA.

Veli Ghegha has eaten it, and now shall eat thee too.

DRAKOS.

Thou didst surprise me while asleep; thou art not brave.
On Ali Pacha's bread thy life depends.
Dost not recall that night at Pent 'Pegadia,
When from the ambuscade I challenged thee
To come and fight with me alone, Veli Ghega?
But in the wood thou hidst, and answered not.
Had I so willed I might have killed thee, ta'en thee prisoner,
But I disdained it, because my name is Drakos.

. . . . . .

Veli Ghegha frowned and clutched his sword.

. . . . . .

ALI.

Art thou a Souliote? . . . Then take him from my sight.
But lose no time with him. He tortured me for years,
And now 'tis time to pay back all his favours.
To Samuel† send, let his last prayer be read,
For he is unconfessed, and earth shall not absorb him.
Go, saddle your horses, sharpen your swords,
And march to Xeromero, search all mounts and woods,
And neither come back nor appear before me,
Until you take the brothers Katsantone.

. . . . . .

And with his hand he motioned them to go.
Drakos gazed at him, and came out singing:
"For forty years I've drunk but Turkish blood,
And Souli now shall celebrate my Easter.
Consume my flesh, Veli, consume my aged frame,
To put blood in thy heart, soul in thy empty breast,
Ere searching Xeromero to find Katsantone."

. . . . . .

*One of Ali Pacha's most ruthless adjutants.

†The illustrious Bishop of Arta, who, although encouraging and assisting the Greek forces, was nevertheless unmolested by Ali Pacha, who both feared and reverenced him.

Archaeology.

ΕΡΕΧΘΕΥΣ = ΑΘΗΝΑ

By Stephen Dragoumis.

Reprinted from the Διεθνὴς Ἐφημερὶς τῆς Νομισματικῆς Ἀρχαιολογίας.

Athens, 1910. Τυπογραφεῖον Ἑστίας.

In this most interesting booklet, Mr. S. Dragoumis, the present Prime Minister of Greece, who is also an accomplished scholar and archæologist, gives us a splendid interpretation of the famous bas-relief known as the "Weeping Athene," which was found on the Acropolis in 1888.

The sad and thoughtful expression of the goddess, who looks down, leaning on a spear, the point of which is thrust into the soil near the base of a stele, and who seems to read the inscription which is written on it, prompted the first interpreter of the relief to consider the goddess as melancholy and weeping, and call her the "Weeping Athene," a name by which it became known to the archæological world. Many archæologists have since recognised the inappropriateness of this appellation, but they have not been able, so far, to supply the real interpretation.

Mr. Dragoumis, prompted by a successful correction he made on an ancient text of Harpocration, gave the following interpretation of the relief:

When in remote times there prevailed in Greece the unwritten rites of Zeus, called *τριογέροντες μῦθοι* there was a custom according to which the relatives of a murdered man used to pursue the murderer. The practice was as follows: After the burial of the dead, they first thrust upon his grave a spear. Afterwards they vowed over the grave that they would pursue the murderer until he should repay with his own blood the blood that he had shed. Finally, they guarded the grave for three days, leaving on it the spear as a token of their pursuit of the murderer. They believed that the spirits of the under-world, in listening to their prayer, were sending from below the avenging spirit (*Ὑστερόποινος Ἄτα*) to help them to avenge the death of their kinsman.

According to this custom, which is referred to by ancient writers in the saying "*ἐπενεικεῖν ἐπὶ τῇ ἐκφορᾷ καὶ προσαγορεύειν ἐπὶ τῷ μνήματι*" there was shown a very ancient figure of Erechtheus, sculptured or painted, standing with his spear thrust on the grave of his daughter Procris, who was murdered by her husband Cephalos. But afterwards there came the refinement of custom which abhorred savage vengeance, and of this refinement Athene became the symbol. She promised to the suppliant Orestes, who came to her temple on the Acropolis, a judgment after trial, thus introducing for the first time the two great principles of justice which rule the civilised world up to the present, that is to say, the trial of murderers in the law courts and, in case of equal votes of the jury, the release of the accused.

As, owing to such refinement of custom, there was substituted for the human sacrifice to Artemis, by order of the same Athene, the mere raising of a sword over the neck of the victim, so for the savage custom of the bloody vengeance there was substituted the practice of only thrusting a spear upon the grave of the dead. Thus the Athene of the famous relief of the Acropolis, with the piteous face, is the symbol of the refinement of custom in this period.

Of course, it is significant and not a mere coincidence that the relief was found on the site of the temple

of the Athene on the Acropolis, in which, as we know, reconciliations were constantly taking place between those concerned in murders.

Mr. Svoronos, the eminent Greek archæologist, thinks the interpretation of Mr. Dragoumis is so admirable, and throws such a brilliant light upon this beautiful monument, that he has no doubt it will become classical and an enviable example of successful archaeological interpretation.

REVIEWS.

ΤΑ ΤΡΙΑ ΦΙΛΙΑ THE THREE KISSES

By C. CHRISTOMANOS.
Athens, 1909.

Mr. Christomanos is one of the best known personalities in Modern Greek literature.

The name of the author of the *Orpheian Songs* and *The Book of the Empress Elizabeth* is known to a considerable extent in the West as well as in Greece, thanks to the latter of the above mentioned works, which was originally published in German and afterwards translated into French, Italian and Greek. An extract from this book, in which Mr Christomanos describes with intense poetical feeling a phase of the life of that beautiful and dream-like creature, the Empress Elizabeth of Austria, was published in number 18 of the *Hellenic Herald.*

Mr. Christomanos is also the founder of the first modernised Theatre at Athens—the *Nea Skini*—the purpose of which is to present the most important international dramatic works and to create a purer and more artistic atmosphere in Modern Greek drama The plot of Mr. Christomanos' play is based on feminine jealousy and that human weakness which hinders us from relying upon our own ideas and from reading our own soul. The centre of the plot is the Three Kisses. The first is the kiss which an interloper gives to the lover of an innocent young girl who is as yet contemplating life from afar. The second kiss is that given by the same interloper to the husband of her young friend, who is now a married woman and has become acquainted with real life and suffered. The third is the last kiss, the kiss of death and ruin.

The drama is called *A Tragic Sonata* and is divided into three parts, prelude, andante, finale, and according to the definition of the author himself it is "a song which also contains dramatic features." Mr. Christomanos did not wish to give us a realistic rendering of life by reproducing scenes which faithfully portray the world and which are always conditioned by some moral preoccupation. He has constructed his work on the fugitive and musical aspects of a dramatic situation, starting with the grief of a child and ending with the ruin of a woman. That is the reason why the lyric tone prevails throughout the work.

The author often succeeds in awaking in us real emotions by the delicacy with which he analyses the psychology of the *dramatis personæ* and by his poetical feeling. But occasionally his lyricism makes the work somewhat artificial where the reader expects a more realistic emotion. This is to a great extent due to the social circle from which Mr. Christomanos has drawn his characters—the colourless plutocratic class of Modern Athens. This uncongenial atmosphere weakens his art and contributes to the divorce of the drama from life. Nevertheless the work is not wanting in beautiful situations, and in its artistically printed pages we recognise the imagination that gave birth to *The Book of the Empress Elizabeth.*

L. P.

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PRESS REVIEW.

The Hellenic Crisis.

Its Causes and its Lessons.

The lull in Greek politics which has at last followed the long-drawn crisis of the autumn and winter seems to be a favourable moment for reviewing calmly and dispassionately the movement which began with the formation of the Military League last year.

Ever since the Cretan insurrection of 1866 that heroic but ill-fated island has been the direct or indirect cause of most political events in the Hellenic Kingdom. It was the Cretan question which, in 1897, led to the war with Turkey, and it was the same question which, in 1909, provoked the recent agitation. The Greeks felt keenly, as was only natural, that while Austria-Hungary was able to annex Bosnia and Herzegovina, and while Bulgaria, their national rival, was allowed to proclaim her independence and revive, after the lapse of more than five centuries, the mediæval title of Tsar in the mediæval capital of Trnovo, Greece was to be put off once more with mere promises. It is sometimes forgotten in Western Europe that the promises made to Greece at the Berlin Congress with regard to Epirus have been only half performed, and the national patience, which Lord Beaconsfield commended at Berlin, was becoming exhausted after so many disappointments. In very recent times the French Government, which was mainly responsible for the failure of the Epirote negotiations in 1881, had used very favourable language to the Greek Government in respect of Crete, while the other three Powers, concerned more especially in that island, were supposed to have come to the conclusion that annexation sooner or later was the only possible solution of a wearisome and extremely expensive question—even more expensive to Greece than to themselves. Probably the best policy for Greece would have been the boldest. Had the Greek Government in October, 1908, bravely accepted the Cretan declaration of Union, it is possible that the "great Greek island" would now be a portion of the Greek Kingdom. At that moment the Young Turks were embarrassed at home, they had to deal with both Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria abroad, while the Powers would have probably done nothing beyond despatching notes of expostulation, to which the Greek Foreign Minister would have sent elegant replies. Then, after the preliminary tall talk in the Press, the matter could have been arranged by a cash payment, and the scene might have closed with the Powers guaranteeing a small loan for this payment to Turkey. Instead of this bold stroke of policy—similar to that adopted by the Rumanians for the union of Moldavia and Wallachia in 1859, and by the Bulgarians for the union of Bulgaria and Eastern Rumelia in 1885—the psychological moment was allowed to pass. Turkey, having come to terms with Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria, was able to devote her undivided attention to Greece, and the Hellenes, as being weaker and less prepared for war than the Dual Monarchy, and less powerfully backed than Prince Ferdinand's subjects—the Benjamins of Europe—had to suffer for the offences of both. War would then have been inevitable had not M. Rhallis sent a most conciliatory note to Turkey, irritated by the hoisting of the Greek flag at Canea when, on July 26, the last European troops left the island. Then it was too late: to have accepted the Union in July would have meant war; to have acknowledged it in the previous October might have meant a definite settlement of an eternal question.

That section of the British public which is interested in the Christian nationalities of the Near East scarcely recognises the obvious fact that the Oriental Christians, especially the Greeks and Serbs, are far worse off than

in the despotic days of Abdul Hamid II. With that Sovereign there was always the prospect of making a political bargain; chauvinism and nationalism were not developed to their present extent among the Turks; and the astute Sultan would have been far more ready to come to terms about Crete than the Young Turks, whose reputation depended upon no further loss of prestige, even though all they gained was the barren privilege of keeping a Turkish flag flying over an islet in Suda Bay. Nowadays another nationality, vigorous and at last self-assertive, has been added to the cockpit of South-Eastern Europe—a result upon which the friends of Turkey may rightly congratulate themselves, but which the Christian races already regret, and in the sequel will probably regret still more.

The Turkish Revolution.

At first, however, the Turkish revolution found admirers, and even imitators on a smaller scale, in Greece. The officers believed that they could not fight Turkey because the Army and Fleet were not up to the mark; and for this negligence they blamed the politicians—just as, under similar circumstances, we may one day blame the politicians in England. For it is well to remember, in criticising Greek parliamentary institutions, that if they have functioned with indifferent success, if "log-rolling" and place-hunting have been too prevalent, and personal cliques have had too much influence—these evils are by no means confined to Greece, but are, in greater or less degree, characteristic of Parliamentarism everywhere, even at virtuous Westminster. There is probably no country where there is more patriotism than is to be found in Greece; there are few countries whose leading men, Trikoupis on the one side and Delyannis on the other, have died so poor. It must be remembered, too, that Parliamentary government, an expensive luxury from the stand-point of national efficiency everywhere, is much less easy to work in Greece, where everyone is a critic and a politician, than in England, where the average elector is dormant except at General Elections. Greece is unthinkable without politics—the natural result of a quick intelligence, keenly interested in discussion, whether of theology, as in the Middle Ages when there were no free institutions, or of public affairs, as in modern times, when every Athenian waiter can discourse on the last Cabinet crisis with the skill of a London leader writer. Whether this system tends to develop the natural resources of the country—and they are considerable—and to strengthen its defences is quite another question. The Military League said "No," and proceeded to compel successive Cabinets to organise the latent forces of the land.

The idea that this movement was anti-dynastic has been warmly repudiated by Colonel Zorbas and his friends, and is *a priori* improbable. King George is the most valuable political asset which his adopted country possesses. Connected with half-a-dozen European Courts, he has worked quietly, but none the less vigorously because he does not advertise, on behalf of Greek claims abroad. He brought Greece the Seven Islands at his election—one of the most splendid gifts ever bestowed by one nation upon another; he has seen Thessaly, the granary of Greece, and the fertile district of Arta added to his Kingdom. It is not his fault that the Powers have withheld Crete, while it was largely owing to him that M. Zaïmes was appointed its High Commissioner—the greatest practical step hitherto made towards Union. Every Greek is well aware that to have treated King George as Otho was treated in 1862 would have been to alienate the sympathies of the most influential foreign Courts, to injure the Greek financial outlook on the European Stock Exchanges, and to substitute for a democratic Monarchy, which possesses the advantages of both systems, an elective Republic which would have aroused internal jealousies, such as, in the dawn of Greek independence, stained the streets of Nauplia with the blood of Capo d'Istria. There was, however, in the Army no slight professional jealousy of the King's sons, of whom the eldest held at that time the "General Command," and two others occupied less important positions. It has long been foreseen by cool observers that when the Royal Princes grew up it might be difficult to provide them with occupations in a country of restricted opportunities. Yet some occupations they might reasonably be expected to have, and in the case of other nations those occupations are usually found for cadets of the Royal House in the Army or Navy. Whether it was ever wise to thrust upon the future King of Greece the by no means enviable duties which fell to his lot after the war of 1897 is another question. But to exclude the Greek Princes from employment of a patriotic character because they were princes would have been a proposal similar to that now in favour with our Radicals at home in regard to the Peerage—to compel a man to accept the rank into which he is born and then to deprive him of any share in public life whatsoever. Between the two extremes of highly responsible office—an office of doubtful advantage to an Heir Apparent—and of elegant but enforced leisure it was possible to find a medium.

A New Factor.

The crisis is now over, and the people is for the moment happy in the possession of no political history—a halcyon period that should last until the meeting of the National Assembly for the revision of certain parts of the Constitution of 1864 in the autumn. Meanwhile, a new factor has entered into the world of Greek politics in the person of M. Eleutherios Venizelos, the famous Cretan politician, whose conflict with Prince George aroused some interest a few years ago. M. Venizelos, who belongs to an old Athenian family of Italian origin, but domiciled at Athens in the latter half of the Seventeenth Century, is the "dark horse" of the situation. His influence in Crete, it is said, is no longer what it once was, but the loss has been amply compensated by his ascendancy in Greece. The leading politicians have been, during these anxious months, more or less under a cloud. M. Theotokis, the most prominent statesman of Greece, whose four tenures of office have filled up most of the last eleven years, has been resting in his tent; M. Rhallis, the vigorous democrat who rendered such yeoman service in the crisis of the war, has never succeeded in remaining long in power; M. Mavromichalis was in the unenviable position of governing by the grace of the Military League; his successor, M. Dragoumis, a former lieutenant of Trikoupis, and a man of great knowledge of affairs, is well-stricken in years; M. Zaïmis, the most conservative and most cautious of Greek statesmen, has been diverted from Greek to Cretan affairs. Under these circumstances the guidance of the National Assembly is at present obscure. At any rate the Crown is safe, and it may be confidently predicted that, in the ordinary course of nature, King George will be able in three years' time to celebrate his regnal Jubilee.—*Morning Post.*

Ionian Bank Limited.

On Tuesday, 12th April, the annual meeting of the above Bank was held at Palmerston House, Bishopsgate Street, E.C. The President, Mr. Falconer Larkworthy, delivered a very interesting and instructive address in which with his usual lucidity and penetration he not only traced the progress of the Bank during the year, but dealt with international financial movements, and especially those of Greece.

We append an extract from this address bearing upon the financial aspect of Hellenic affairs and the balance sheet.

"Fortunately, Greece has not been disturbed to any great extent, and the best informed do not apprehend from these convulsions, which appear to be

of a patriotic character and supported by the Nation, any direct danger, either to the service of the charge on the State Debt, or to our own and analogous institutions.

They probably represent a stage in the higher development of a progressive people, the full meaning of which will become more clear as time passes. At the same time, the restoration of tranquillity and the increase of confidence are of supreme importance to the country if its prestige is to be maintained, especially in the direction of its financial credit, which has been steadily improving for some years; for where confidence does not exist, there is no coward so great as capital.

It is surprising how well the country's credit has borne the shock of these disturbances hitherto having regard to the Stock Exchange quotations for its public loans; but, although the present phase of the Cretan difficulty has terminated, and a temporary settlement of internal affairs has been arrived at, and the Military League has dissolved itself, serious retrogression will be inevitable if some permanent, peaceful, constitutional settlement of existing differences is not speedily brought about, and legislation permanently liberated from military pressure. I say this having special reference to the financial policy of the existing administration, which includes the raising of a loan for Frs. 150,000,000 which may be subsequently increased to Frs. 240,000,000, concerning which the Law has passed its third reading.

This loan is intended, partly, for the reorganisation of the Country's naval and military forces; partly, to cover deficits of past years, including that of 1909; and partly, to the construction of important railway lines; and, in the case of the second portion—to repay the forced currency debt owing by the Government to the National Bank of Greece, which amounted on 31st December last to Drs. 61,778,575.42, with the view of abolishing the Forced Currency."

Capital.—The issued capital of the Bank is without change. It still stands at £315,510.

The disturbed political situation of Greece, and the country's late misfortunes have influenced the Court in delaying the issue of the new shares to a later period than was originally intended, in the hope that better economic conditions would occur later, which would enable their old supporters in Greece to increase their holdings; and I am glad to say that, hitherto, without any undue extension of credit, and by means of its existing resources, and by limiting the least liquid part of the cotton business, the Bank has been able to meet with facility the requirements of its Egyptian business. The question, however, of the new issue, having regard to the coming cotton season, which commences in September, will soon engage the attention of the Court.

Reserve Fund.—A fixed Reserve Fund of £50,000 was created last year, and with the amount carried forward, viz., £30,850 18s. 4d., made a total Reserve of £80,850 18s. 4d.

Including the movements of the year under review, the Reserve Fund stands at £100,000, and the amount carried forward, £21,981 1s. 4d.; and these make a total Reserve of £121,981 1s. 4d., which includes £21,247 12s. 7d. transferred from an internal reserve account.

I have to explain that the desirability for the creation of this internal reserve by annual instalments of £2,648 2s. 3d. with interest at 5 per cent. per annum, arose at the last renewal of the Bank's privilege to issue notes, when the Greek Government provided by law that the privilege should terminate absolutely in the year 1920 by the transfer of this Bank's privilege to the National Bank of Greece.

The Fund was instituted as a provision to compensate shareholders for the loss of earning power and of profit, at that distant date, which would arise, and which might be expected to reduce the dividend below what was then considered its normal rate of say 6 per cent.

It is now obvious, that, having regard to the Bank's increased earning power, the probability of reduction is minimised, and the Court consider that the amount of the private reserve—namely £21,247 12s. 7d., should be transferred to the fixed Reserve Fund, where it will fructify equally well in the shape of an internal reserve.

Notes in Circulation.—Drachmas 6,201,146 as against Drachmas 6,058,948, shewing an increase in the total circulation of Drs. 142,198.

Deposits.—£767,799 10s. 5d., as against £715,507 15s. at the 13th January, 1909, shewing an increase of £52,291 15s. 5d.

Bills Payable.—£179,028 15s. 11d. as against £114,932 5s. 1d. This increase is mainly the result of our business in Egypt.

On the Asset side.—Cash in Hand and at Bankers, Notes of other Banks and Money at Call with the National Bank of Greece, together £120,629 12s. 5d., as against £135,350 12s. 6d. at the last balance sheet.

The cash £120,629 12s. 5d., and our investments in London, which are readily realisable, £111,203 7s. 10., amounting to £231,833 0s. 3d., are the Bank's reserve against its liabilities on demand.

Bills Receivable.—£66,234 10s. 11d., as against £39,471 11s. 4d. last year, shewing an increase of £26,762 19s. 7d.

Investments.—£153,290 13s. as against £147,524 9s. 9d. an increase under this heading as well of £5,766 3s. 3d.

Bills Discounted, Advances on Securities, Loans, &c., amount to £2,066,853 5s., as against £1,595,054 6s. 8d. or £471,798 18s. 4d. in excess of 1908-1909. This increase is also mainly the result of our operations in Egypt.

Landed Property and Premises. £34,047 12s. 2d. as against £38,039 16s. 6d. and £24,179 7s. 9d. unchanged.

Profit and Loss.—After making full provisions for all losses, Grant to Pension Fund of £2,000, Reduction of Bank Premises Furniture Account, the net profit for the year amounts to £38,813 2s. 5d., which is the largest amount of profit—not exceptional—that the Bank has ever earned.

To this sum has to be added the balance from last year, £30,850 18s. 4d., making a total of £69,664 0s. 9d. From this has to be deducted the final dividend for 1908, paid in April 1909, of 7 per cent., amounting to £11,043 17s., and the interim dividend paid in September last of 5 per cent., which amounts to £7,887 15s., in all £18,930 12s., and we have left to be dealt with on this occasion the sum of £50,733 8s. 9d., of which £28,752 7s. 5d. has been transferred to the Reserve Fund, leaving a balance of £21,981 1s. 4d. to be carried forward.

The Court, in recommending the continuance of a dividend at the rate of 6 per cent., have been influenced by the desire to place the affairs of the Bank in the strongest position possible.

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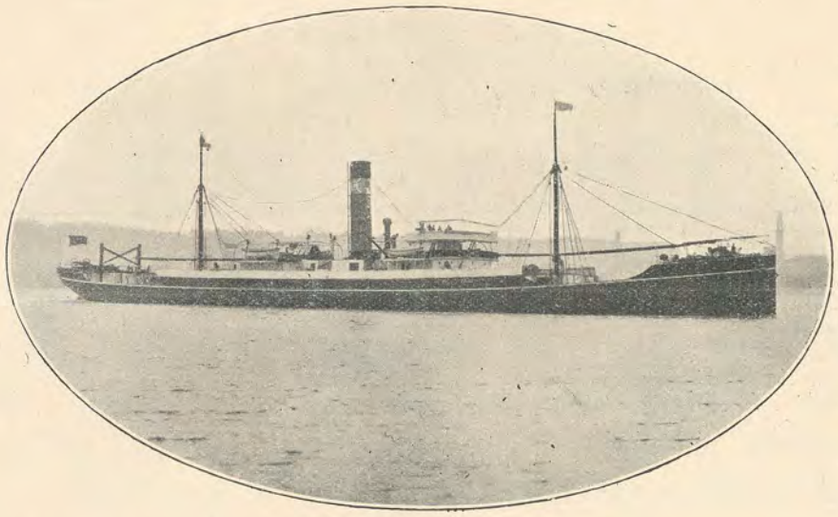

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National Bank of Greece.

ASSETS, 31st December, 1909.	31st Dec., 1909. * Drachmae.		31st July, 1909. * Drachmae.	
Funds: Cash	4,151,941	63	3,353,186	21
Funds: Ionian Bank, Bonds	314,550	—	491,815	—
Funds: Ditto, of one and two Drachmae	408,824	—	944,573	—
In Foreign Banks: Gold	40,172,037	12	40,077,320	60
In Foreign Banks: Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	70,503	95	283,350	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds: in gold Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper „ 34,617,201.25	60,193,139	25	60,696,320	—
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,687,851	25	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,202,412	86	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	479.981	76	—	—
Bills	21,580,458	32	22,496,191	06
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,383,978	01	3,269,341	06
Advances on Securities	25,155,339	62	20,493,401	84
Advances on Merchandise	7,260,689	42	4,569,183	46
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	69,532,928	83	69,224,348	66
Loans to Communities, Harbours and other legal bodies	47,179,731	35	46,357,015	30
Maturing Loans to Communities, Harbour, etc.	101,764	89	—	—
*Agricultural Drafts	11,410,127	06	14,630,958	90
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,284,062	60	5,350,201	44
Shares in Local Companies	7,574,018	—	7,598,658	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds: Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece; Bank Bonds at 2½%	568,600	—	755,777	75
Sundry Coupons	1,334,659	37	406,354	62
Bank and Premises	9,242,705	26	9,196,924	92
*Doubtful Debts	3,463,940	75	3,427,651	85
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,284,004	46	1,381,313	56
Sundry Accounts	2,338,063	19	2,805,571	41
Sundry Foreign Acconnts	2,160,979	82	2,337,512	46
Redemption of State Participation in the profits of the Bank	1,003,520	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	480,000	—	560,000	—
Commission for the Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in in Bank Bonds	885,955	46	50,000	—
Sundries			479,713	94
Dr	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

LIABILITIES, 31st December, 1909.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank „ 49,820,329.73	125,831,099	84	111,598,905	15
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	7,501,580	56	12,714,932	26
Deposits without Interest	20,668,794	94	28,231,147	70
Demand Notes	1,087,826	71	1,340,364	28
Unclaimed Dividends	177,950	—	723,525	—
Dividends of the last two quarters of 1909	2,000,000	—	—	—
International Financial Control: A/c of payment of Revenues affected: Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes „ 4,282,520.64	4,493,861	84	5,046,158	94
Service of the State Loans—Gold	2,187,519	90	418,971	75
Ditto, in Bank Notes			992,707	97
Service of different loans in Bank notes	22,975	90	—	—
State Deposits, Gold	15,816	70	3,295	78
State Deposits, Bank Notes	70,505	95	15,062	65
State Deposits: For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway: Gold	111,718	26	283,350	83
State Deposits: For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway: Notes	1,104,882	18	2,360	21
State Deposits (bequeth of Syngros)	117,585,023	88	118,779,766	33
Deposits at Interest	39,856,410	—	40,574,160	—
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%				
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes, at 2½%	20,242,900	—	20,367,900	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	2,583,818	—	2,176,306	—
Ditto., Bank Notes at 2½%	1,001,417	50	309,740	—
Savings Bank	13,860,982	70	13,234,498	67
Bills to be paid	916,250	15	—	—
Interest of mortgage loans	1,532,386	18	—	—
Interest of simple loans	451,275	70	—	—
Sundries	280,823	87	1,618,314	79
Dr.	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

*At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachmae is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant.
D. CARATZAS.

Athens, *December* 31, 1909.

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of the

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THE
HELLENIC HERALD

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The late King Edward.

The universal sorrow felt at the death of King Edward has probably not produced a deeper impression anywhere than it has in Greece. Not only was the dead King the sovereign of a great nation with which the people of Greece had long been in closest friendly alliance, but his abilities as a statesman, a friend of peace and helper of oppressed peoples as well as his personal charm of manner were well known and highly appreciated among the Hellenes.

Both when Prince of Wales and after his ascent to the Throne King Edward frequently visited Greece, where personal relationship with the reigning family secured for him a more cordial reception than that accorded to other potentates. That reception was always more enthusiastic when King Edward was accompanied by his gracious Consort Queen Alexandra, whose charm of manner and deep interest in and affection for all pertaining to the country ruled by her brother, King George, gave her an especial place in the hearts of the Greek people.

All who were present at the last Olympic games will remember the ovation with which the immense gathering greeted King Edward on his appearance in the Stadium by the side of King George—a reception which in its splendid enthusiasm made his entry a veritable triumph.

Immediately upon receipt of the sad news messages of condolence with the British people and the Royal Family were dispatched from the King, the Government, the Mayor of Athens, and a great number of official bodies throughout Greece. At the funeral the Greek nation was represented by King George, the Crown Prince Constantine, Prince Andrew, and Prince Christopher. The Government was represented by H. E. Athos Romanos, and the Greek Patriarch by the Great Archimandrite, the Rev. Constantine Pagonis, of the Greek Church in London. Numerous beautiful wreaths were sent on behalf of the Hellenic nation, conspicuous among which for their richness and beauty were those from the Greek community in London and the Mayor of Athens.

The death of King Edward, who was always a true friend of Greece, would in any circumstances have been regarded as a calamity by the Greek people, but especially so at the present critical juncture, when Greece requires the help and sympathy of all her friends.

CRETE.

The Cretan question has unfortunately taken on a rather unfavourable complexion during the month, owing to the ultra-chauvinistic demonstrations of the Turks, who, after the manner of Don Quixote, are defying the whole world and protesting theatrically that they "will shed their last drop of blood in defence of their rights in Crete." The critical nature of the situation is to a large extent due to the mistaken leniency which some of the Protecting Powers, actuated by small shopkeeping motives, are exhibiting towards

these Turkish swashbucklers. The only hopeful sign that we can discern in the unfortunate muddle is the firm determination exhibited by the British Government not to be deterred from redeeming its pledges of honour by any suggestion that by so doing they may be accused of unduly favouring Greece.

Unfortunately this honourable attitude of the British Government has not been imitated by all the organs representing English public opinion. Several of these adopted an attitude very unfavourable to the Cretan people, and the leading article of the *Standard* of the 27th May, dealing with the question, was so hostile in its tone that we felt constrained to address to it the following remonstrance, which was duly published in its columns :

To the Editor of "The Standard."

Sir,—I should like, with your permission, to reply to one or two of the points in your article of Friday's date on the above subject. First of all, with regard to the unfortunate incident which occurred in the Cretan Assembly and evoked your adverse criticism. While I certainly deplore it, I cannot help pointing out that the occurrence was caused by one of the Ottoman representatives lodging a second protest in an ostentatious and provocative manner, as if the one already made collectively were not sufficient. From information in my possession I am in a position to certify that the terms of the protest, as well as the manner of lodging it, were both offensive, for while the copies which were handed to the representatives of the Powers referred to the Sultan as the suzerain of Crete, that deposited in the Chamber explicitly styled him its Sovereign, and called upon the Powers to "recognise the autonomy granted to the island by Turkey." Considering the nature of this provocation, coming as it did at a moment of extreme tension, it is quite unfair to blame the whole Cretan people for what was really the action of but one individual—an action which was disapproved by the Assembly as a whole, and was subsequently apologised for by its perpetrator.

As to the "entire unwillingness" of the Cretans "to accord equal rights to their Moslem neighbours," to which you allude, may I point out that these rights have been so fully conceded, and the Moslem element so well treated during the twelve years of autonomy, that the Powers felt constrained to withdraw from the island in accordance with their promise that they would do so if perfect order was restored? The exclusion of the Moslem members from the Assembly was dictated solely in the interest of that order, the preservation of which was a duty laid upon the Cretans by the Powers. From inside knowledge, I can assert that the behaviour of the Moslem deputies was instigated from Constantinople and Salonika, and had as its object the fomenting of trouble in order not only to prevent the legitimate aspirations of the Cretans from being further gratified, but to curtail the measure of liberty which they at present possess. It remains for the Powers to decide whether these Turkish machinations shall be allowed to produce the effect which it is intended that they shall have. The pledges given by the Powers to Crete could only mean this—that the Cretans should be allowed to decide their own form of government when complete order had been restored.

The only true solution of the Cretan question lies in the strict fulfilment of these pledges on the part of the Powers. Should Turkey, by seizing frivolous pretexts, endeavour to frustrate these beneficial designs, it should be the duty of the Powers to prevent her. At present the only trace of Turkish rule in Crete is a very diminutive flag which is displayed upon a point of rock outside the harbour of Canea. It would be simply preposterous to permit Turkey to embark upon war and imperil the peace of Europe in assertion of such shadowy rights as this implies.

We do not wish to embarrass Turkey. On the contrary, we are anxious to see the constitutional *régime* firmly established and the Turkish Empire developed to the fullest extent; but we feel that this end can only be attained by a steady and wholesome reorganisation of all the branches of the Administration and by infusing into not only the Government officials but also the populace a sense of duty and fraternal equality between both Moslems and Christians. It is only by such means that the consolidation and the perpetuation of the constitutional *régime* in Turkey can be achieved, and not by wasting precious time and energy in sheer chauvinism or the pursuit of phantasmal rights. This is what the Turks must endeavour to realise, and what those who desire to be regarded as their friends must try to impress upon them.

I am, Sir, etc.,

C. POUPTIS.

Cretan Note to the Powers.

The Cretan Executive Committee addressed on the 20th instant to the Consuls of the protecting Powers the following Note:—

"La commission du pouvoir exécutif de la Crète a l'honneur d'accuser réception de la notification que lui ont faite, en date du 30 Janvier (N.S., 12 Février) dernier, d'ordre de leurs gouvernements respectifs, les Consuls-généraux de France, Grande Bretagne, Russie, et le Gérant du Consulat-Général d'Italie, et elles les prient de vouloir bien soumettre à leurs hauts gouvernements le mémoire ci-joint, ainsi que les considérations suivantes.

En retirant au mois juillet dernier leurs troupes de la Crète les puissances protectrices s'en sont remis, pour le maintien de l'ordre public et de la sécurité de la population Musulmane, à l'énergie et à la loyauté des autorités constituées. La commission prend à témoin messieurs les Consuls-généraux des efforts sincères et de l'activité qu'elle a déployés pour remplir cette tâche, que les circonstances dans lesquelles se trouve l'île contribuent à rendre particulièrement difficile.

Pour y arriver, elle n'a pas manqué de faire valoir aux yeux du peuple Crétois, et de lui rappeler sans cesse, tout le prix de l'initiative bienveillante que lui ont promise les puissances protectrices dans leur déclaration du 15 (28) Octobre, 1908, si l'ordre était maintenu et la sécurité de la population Musulmane assurée.

Si elle croit être en droit de dire aujourd'hui qu'elle a su répondre loyalement à l'attente des puissances, la commission se permet de solliciter instamment des gouvernements protecteurs de daigner, dans l'intérêt même de l'ordre et de la paix, ne pas lui retirer leur appui moral, qui lui est si précieux, car c'est uniquement dans la confiance du peuple Crétois envers les puissances qu'elle a trouvé les moyens et l'autorité nécessaires pour se conformer jusqu'ici à leurs recommandations.

Par des motifs qui échappent à la commission, les puissances protectrices n'ont pas cru encore opportun d'aborder la discussion dont elles se déclaraient, il y a seize mois, pas être éloignées. La tâche de la commission n'en est rendue que plus difficile, car la situation anormale où se trouve depuis près d'un an et demi la Crète ne peut se prolonger indéfiniment sans dangers.

Le peuple Crétois, qui sort à peine d'une lutte inégale et cruelle, a la conscience profonde de son droit. Sa cause lui est sacrée. Ses revendications sont légitimes ; rien ne pourra l'en détourner.

L'histoire des dernières années atteste assez que la Crète ne peut vivre en dehors des institutions Grecques. L'attraction nationale vers la patrie mère est telle que tout gouvernement autre que le gouvernement Hellénique

doit céder sous l'impopularité et la désaffection publique et la manque d'autorité. Nul autre, aussi fort soit-il, ne peut offrir en Crète les garanties indispensibles de durée et de sécurité qui apporteront au pays la confiance et le bien-être dont il a tant besoin.

Le *statu quo*, tel qu'il est appliqué depuis le 24 Septembre, 1908, constitue un pas de plus vers la réalisation des vœux nationaux. A l'abri de toute atteinte extérieure, de par la volonté des puissances protectrices et leurs déclarations envers les Crétois ce *statu quo* est un élément positif dans la situation internationale de l'île et la preuve tangible aux yeux du peuple Crétois des intentions des quatre gouvernements. Après l'application pendant près de deux ans d'un tel *régime* la commission du pouvoir exécutif ne peut douter que les puissances protectrices, dans leur sentiment de haute équité et de bienveillance, dont le peuple Crétois n'a pas démerité, ne voudront pas compromettre les situations acquises et envisagées dans des notes officielles en s'écartant du chemin qu'elles y ont elles-mêmes tracé.

Elle espère que messieurs les Consuls-généraux voudront bien être auprès des puissances protectrices interprètes autorisés de l'ardente prière que la commission leur adresse au nom du peuple Crétois, afin qu'elles ne tardent pas à donner à sa juste cause la seule solution qu'elle comporte. Elle le fait avec la ferme conviction que la sanction de l'union viendra en temps utile à couronner l'œuvre pour laquelle la Crète a voué aux puissances protectrices une éternelle reconnaissance."

A PERTINENT REMONSTRANCE.

The gravity of the situation created by the ultra-Chauvinistic action not only of the Turkish populace, but of the government itself, cannot be better illustrated than by the following vehement protest which, coming as it does from such a conservative and, owing to its grave responsibility in a delicate task, usually cautious source as the Œcumenical Patriarch, is worthy of the closest attention.

The last number of his official organ, the Ekklesiastiki Alithia, contains the following article:—

"In two months' time a period of two years will have elapsed since the proclamation of the Constitution, and during these years the Church has been striving to repel many encroachments which in the name of liberty and equality have been directed against her rights and privileges. These rights and privileges having been granted to her five or six centuries ago, and confirmed at different periods since, are now indispensable to her very existence. Never at any time has the Church and her vital privileges been assailed with more determination than during the last two years. An attack against these in former times was perhaps more explicable, because the state was governed by an autocracy; but since the 24th of July, 1908, when the sacred principles of constitutional liberty and equality were proclaimed, any attack of the kind is incomprehensible. Unfortunately, such aggressions now take place nearly every day in different parts of the Empire where Orthodox and Christians generally live. In order to repel the aggressions directed against their creed the Patriarch repeatedly lodged written protests and memoranda to the Constitutional Government of the State, some of which were published in the *Ekklesiastiki Alithia*. We, therefore, think it unnecessary to repeat what has been said in those documents.

Last year there were passed by the Chamber and Senate many laws, the application of which opens fresh wounds in the life of faithful members of that great family called our Empire. From different parts of the State are announced unpardonable incidents, and many regrettable results of the application of these new laws, as is shown by an investigation of the conduct of local officials, who are entirely ignorant of the principles of equality, freedom and justice, and who misinterpret here the letter of the law, and there its spirit.

The attacks which have been especially directed against the character of our educational system have been multiplied of late, and have assumed a dangerous form. The governors and sub-governors are interfering with the vital functions of education, addressing themselves directly to the teachers and local commissions, instead of to the metropolitan, as has been the custom for centuries. The subsidies which the Government grants to the Christian schools are purposely and ostentatiously given to them direct without any knowledge of their real needs, and simply to create a gulf between them and their spiritual head, no attempt being made to provide the slightest alternative to take the place of the organisation which they are endeavouring to destroy. They compel the teachers to present their diplomas for confirmation direct to the local officials, although these diplomas have been duly confirmed previously by their spiritual head. This they constrain the teachers to do by threatening them with compulsory military service. They are fond of setting up mixed educational commissions, composed of representatives of all the races, to direct the education in each province, no matter though these provinces may happen to be inhabited entirely by Greeks. Considering that the education of the Christians, from the time of our Lord to the present day, in all its stages, has always had a religious character—as it ought to have, according to the teaching of the Apostles and the holy fathers—considering that such is the case, no mixed commission composed of Christians, Turks, and Jews has any right to direct that education, or to specify the lessons and the books which have to be employed. The Government already exercises the right of inspecting and controlling the books and the curricula of the schools.

The educational status of our schools has been maintained during nineteen centuries, and none of the Byzantine emperors nor the sultans who succeeded them, have ever done anything but express their satisfaction with it.

Unfortunately to-day this status is fiercely attacked, and numerous obstacles thrown in the way of the education which is suitable to the orthodox Greeks and other Christians. We are asked to forget our divinely-transmitted faith and our nationality. The sub-governor of Bizye, putting into practice these ideas and obeying the orders of his superiors, endeavoured by force to Turkicise the Greek educational society of the town by refusing to recognise it unless it employed the Turkish language in all its deliberations, reports, and correspondence. As to comply with this demand is an utter impossibility, a most useful educational body, against which no just complaint could be directed, is condemned to extinction. Nevertheless, the law of societies does not contain any such insane provision. When orders are issued and acts like the foregoing committed, not only in one, five or ten provinces, but all over the Empire where Christians live, the Constitutional Government has a duty to perform in bringing again into the right path those who err from it, and proclaiming solemnly, as it promised to do, that all the sacred rights of the Church should be respected. Thus, and only thus, will be abolished the friction and estrangement which exist between rulers and ruled in Turkey, and thus, and only thus, will be inaugurated that harmony and mutual co-operation indispensable to the successful development of the Ottoman Empire.

GLADSTONE AND GREECE.

The Don Pacifico Case, 1850.

IV.

Gladstone next proceeded to the investigation of Finlay's and Pacifico's cases, which really were the more important. After propounding the principles of international law, which we have already given,* he proceeded thus: "I contend that, in the cases before us, Mr. Finlay and Mr. Pacifico did not exhaust, nor try to exhaust, the remedies which the law of Greece supplied." Stating that Lord Palmerston had not carefully perused the papers in this case, he said, "For my hon. and learned friend actually assured the House that the Greek law was not applicable to the case of Mr. Finlay, and that the Government of Greece itself did not refer him to the tribunals. Now, sir, on the contrary, there is not, I think, a single letter from the Greek Government in regard to Mr. Finlay's case, where they do not distinctly and pointedly intimate that the tribunals were open to him, and that to them he should have repaired." He mentioned four such letters, dated from the 19th of February, 1846, to the 21st of November, 1848, in which the Greek Government insisted in unmistakable language that Mr. Finlay's proper course would have been to apply to the tribunals, as the Greek law permits private persons to sue the Sovereign through the medium of a responsible minister. "But Mr. Finlay did not have recourse to the tribunals, although, later, he admitted that he might have gone there. Whatever may have been the reasons that Mr. Finlay did not go before the tribunals, if the tribunals were competent by law to try the case, then, at all events, in order to give you the basis of an ulterior claim in any other form, Mr. Finlay was bound to go before them. If the tribunals were open, and if Mr. Finlay would not plead before them, the case of the noble Lord against the Greek Government, so far as that gentleman is concerned, is unsound from the very bottom. If the tribunals were corrupt, it was his duty to go before them and then to allege and show their corruption; if they were feeble, to show their weakness; if their jurisdiction would only cover part of his case, it was his duty to apply to them for that part, and then, in claiming diplomatic intervention, to show in what part they had fallen short. This is the principle of the law of nations."

Gladstone then read Finlay's letter dated the 4th of September, 1848. He refuted Finlay's allegation that his land was arbitrarily seized. Finlay, in fact, on behalf of himself and others, signed a petition of inhabitants of Athens to the King of Greece (Otho), offering to cede to him their lands at a much lower price (20 leptas a pic) than what was afterwards called an inadequate price when offered by the Government. Baron Gros declined to admit that there was an arbitrary seizure.

The second reason which Mr. Finlay assigned for not seeking redress before the tribunals was the expense and delay. "Sir," said Gladstone, "for my part I was not aware that any legal questions, especially any one pertaining to the possession of land, could be tried without some kind of expense and delay."

We now come to the third reason—Mr. Finlay's ultimate reason, as he himself estimates, for not applying to the Greek tribunals. He says:—

"I cannot equitably be called on to sue the Greek "Government in its own country, so long as it retains "the power of changing the judges from day to day, a "power which the Government of Greece has often "used in a suspicious manner."

Gladstone referred, as an example, to the Lord Chancellor, the head of the judicial body in England and Ireland, who also holds office during pleasure, and asked the House if they would permit a foreigner to demur to his jurisdiction upon such a plea. "There is not to be one rule for the weak and another for the strong. There may remain another plea, that the tribunals of Greece are so corrupt that these cases could not with propriety be taken before them. This is too late. There is the eleventh article of the Anglo-Greek treaty of 1837, by a strange coincidence signed on behalf of Great Britain by Lord Palmerston, which precludes anyone from employing that plea. Then Gladstone read Finlay's appreciation of the Greek tribunals.

"It is true that the Greek tribunals have so nobly "defended the liberty of the press and the rights of the "Greeks on many occasions against the Court and the "Government that I should feel great confidence in "their equity in any case that could come fairly "under their cognizance, if the judges were named for "life."

It has been shown before that you cannot refuse to go before the Courts on the ground that the judges are not named for life.

"There is another evidence, the evidence of Sir Edmund Lyons himself, who in his despatch of the 24th of February, 1836, writes thus to the noble Lord. 'The press is unshackled, the tribunals are completely independent.'

"In October, 1849, arbitrators were appointed by mutual consent to settle the claims of Mr. Finlay, Why had not that arbitration been concluded before January?

"This is what Baron Gros, the representative of France, a man of high character, said. 'The act naming the arbitrators was signed before a notary on the 6th of October, 1849.' However, no step onward has been taken. Mr. Finlay did not put the arbitrating tribunal in possession of information on the affair it had to decide, and all remains in *statu quo*. I do not, therefore, allege that it was the Greek Government which threw impediments in the way of arbitration."

Gladstone further stated that he had been informed by a professor of the University of Athens that the Greek Government had offered to waive its privilege of cutting off the arbitration owing to the efflux of time, which under the laws of Greece it had the right to do, as these laws allow only a period of three months for arbitration. He proceeded to say:—

"Considering in retrospect what has occurred, it seems that Mr. Finlay had in the autumn some glimpse of the likelihood that a British armament might shortly appear near the Piraeus, and that more favourable terms might be obtained for his land by negotiation under the guns of that armament than by the more usual method that had been agreed on; and that in consequence he was not over-anxious to press matters to a conclusion before the arbitrators."*

Gladstone then examined the main case.

"I come, however, now to the much more serious and much worse case of M. Pacifico." He held that this must stand or fall by the principles applicable to the case of Mr. Finlay.

"Pacifico's principal claims were two.† The first was for the sacking and plunder of his house; and that there may be no question as to my view of such proceedings, I at once declare that a detestable and execrable outrage was committed upon him. Further, I freely and entirely admit to you that the character

*Vide *Hellenic Herald*, Vol. IV. No. 40, p. 52.

*Mr. Finlay bought his land in 1830 for £10. It was a small plot amounting to three-quarters of an acre. He sold it to the Greek Government for £1,500. As several other plots had been bought at the same time, a royal commission was appointed which came to the determination after a careful examination that Finlay's land and also that of 100 other proprietors, ought not to be valued at more than half-a-drachma (five-pence) per square yard. The other 100 proprietors agreed to accept the terms: Finlay refused them.

†Vide *Hellenic Herald*, vol. IV. No. 40, p. 51, *ibidem*.

of M. Pacifico does not matter to us one straw when we are considering his title to protection or compensation." But he admitted at the same time that Pacifico himself compelled them to consider rather narrowly the question of his character, because the whole of these enormous claims on his behalf, amounting to something like 30,000*l.* or 31,000*l.* out of a total of 32,000*l.* or 33,000*l.*—the whole of the allegations respecting them, which were of a nature, as Gladstone thought, to strain to the uttermost the credulity of any man living—rested altogether on Pacifico's personal credit.

Gladstone, of course, said that Pacifico's Jewish faith ought not to be considered a cause of mistrust. He then invited the House to disapprove Sir Edmund Lyons, who accepted the allegations in every case wholesale, as they were made, and transmitted them without discrimination or inquiry to Lord Palmerston.

"Well then, sir," Gladstone proceeded, "we are bound to examine into the value of the allegations, as they are concerned with the character of the party. And first, I think it my duty to remark that ten days ago a statement was made, in terms the most distinct, before a full and distinguished concourse, and with the utmost notoriety, to the effect that a certain David Pacifico, of the same domicile, creed and nation, with our David Pacifico, did forge a bill for £600, and the identity of the party was at least suggested. This charge has not been denied, and if there was power to deny it, the fact that it has not been denied appears quite inexplicable. Now I ask the question whether any one man in this House has read the celebrated inventory of M. Pacifico's furniture and effects without finding that it bears on the very face of it all the proofs of gross, palpable and wilful exaggeration? It is declared by Baron Gros, in language by no means too strong, to be a "deplorable exaggeration."* Gladstone recited the amounts given hereunder, and said that although furniture of such value can be made by a London upholsterer, it would be ridiculous to find it in the house of a man who has no other property whatever apart from the destroyed furniture. "And yet this man, who thus surpassed nearly all subjects and equalled almost any prince, according to his own account, in many articles of luxury, who had £5,000 worth of clothes, jewels and furniture in his house, had not outside of it, except plate pledged to the Bank of Athens for £30, which he had not been able to redeem, one single farthing!" Pacifico was not even able to give a sample of his destroyed furniture. "It is plain that his furniture, as he has described it, was massive and solid in the highest degree. And yet we are told of its disappearing, its being broken to pieces and destroyed. It is not pretended that fire was used."

Then Gladstone scrupulously examined the documentary evidence produced by Pacifico, and rejected it as conflicting and untrustworthy. Pacifico, like Finlay, did not have recourse to the civil tribunals. He only went on the day of the riot to the Procureur du Roi and moved him to institute an inquiry. Members of the House had overlooked the distinction between the criminal and civil courts of Greece, the latter alone having jurisdiction for civil redress. Pacifico alleged that the Greek authorities were unwilling to pursue the inquiry. The authorities did not prosecute with the necessary vigour because they apprehended a fresh outbreak of popular fanaticism. Supporters of the Government made it a great point that amongst the mob which sacked Pacifico's house were two sons of a Greek Minister. The fact appears to be true in substance, but those two sons were schoolboys, not more than 15 years old, and they were irresponsible and unable to do much harm, so this could not have been, as it was alleged, one of the reasons for which the Greek Government did not pursue its inquiry.

*A couch £170, a chest of drawers £53, a carpet £50, two mirrors worth £120, a bed £150, and so forth.

Gladstone stated that the Greek Government objected in principle not to the claim for redress, but to the lodging of that claim against the State in the first instance. M. Colocotronis, one of the Greek Ministers, wrote in these terms on the 28th of July, 1848, to Sir Edmund Lyons:—"You perceive, M. le Chevalier, that I do not enter upon the merits of the case; it would not be competent for me to do so. That which one of my predecessors has maintained, that which I also think, is that there should first be a decision of court, then if the decisions of the judicial authority should not in their execution have been sufficiently supported by the competent authority, and if the injured party should have no other recourse save the interference of his representative in order to obtain what a decision had awarded to him, diplomatic interference would in that case be well founded and expressly authorised by the law of nations. Let M. Pacifico then fulfil those indispensable formalities, let him do what he ought to do; and then he may be sure that his complaints will be listened to, and that the King's Government will interpose no delay in granting him, from the proper quarter, the compensation which may be due to him."

Again, it was not the financial question which prohibited Pacifico from going to the courts, for Lord Palmerston wrote the following dispatch to Sir Edmund Lyons, dated the 18th December, 1847:—

"I have to instruct you to cause a prosecution to be instituted against the offenders, in the name of M. Pacifico, but at the expense of Her Majesty's Government.* The British Minister transmitted this letter to Pacifico, who, however, did not see his way to agree to this, alleging that no member of the Greek Bar would be willing to undertake the defence of the "poor and despised Pacifico." From that date to the moment that Gladstone was speaking no more was said about resorting to the Greek tribunals. Then Gladstone referred to the second claim of Pacifico, that in respect of certain documents which, he asserted, proved his demand upon Portugal. It was a claim for no less than £26,000, alleged to have been due for a great number of years—more than twenty probably. Baron Gros observed that Pacifico never before invoked the aid of the British Ambassador at Lisbon with respect to this claim, and added also that as Pacifico stated that the "Portuguese Government never yielded to his demands," there must necessarily exist in the archives of the Office of Foreign Affairs, or in that of the Finances at Lisbon, authentic copies of the documents which served to establish Pacifico's claim; so that there was no loss with respect to these documents, if they ever existed. "But yet, sir, notwithstanding not only the absence of positive proof, but every presumption of falsehood and imposture, these enormous demands have been adopted by the Government of Great Britain, the naval power of Great Britain has been put in action to enforce them, and they have been urged, too, upon Greece in their entirety." From this Lord Palmerston expressed his dissent, but Gladstone proved that his assertion was right.

Pacifico's claims constituted something like five-sixths of the entire demand upon Greece. The whole of the other claims did not amount to more than some £6,000 or £7,000 and the value of all the seizures of vessels made, without reckoning cargoes, was about £82,000. Baron Gros, who, in the opinion of Lord Palmerston, "was a man of sense and of a conciliatory disposition," said that if France had had to arbitrate, some £2,000 or a little over would have been all that she could have awarded to Great Britain.

(To be continued.)

* This letter was written in answer to a report of Sir Edmund Lyons, on Pacifico's story of another outrage—a mock outrage which he alleged was made on the 1st as we indicate having taken place on the 4th of April, 1847. This story was received, accepted, and transmitted by Sir E. Lyons, in his invariable manner, without scrutiny or question.

Modern Greek Literature.

Dionysius Solomos is the forerunner of those modern Greek poets who, casting aside scholastic traditions, have given expression to their thoughts entirely in the popular language. He may thus be justly regarded as the founder of the school of modern Greek poetry. Moreover, the nobility of his ideals, the intense fervour of his poetic feeling, and his masterly handling of lyrical form give him an exalted place among modern Greek poets.

Unfortunately, none of Solomos' pieces was printed during his lifetime, and it is this circumstance which is doubtless responsible for the lack of finish to be observed here and there in his work.

Below we give several stanzas from his soul-stirring "Hymn to Liberty," which has been adopted as the Greek National Anthem; also his vivid lines on the "Destruction of Psara," which inspired the eminent Greek painter Guizis to the production of the picture which we reproduce on another page; and his poem entitled "The Poisoned Maiden," written to vindicate the honour of a young lady of his acquaintance, who had been driven to suicide by unjust accusations. The recitation of the last-named piece produced a widespread sensation, and more than accomplished the poet's chivalrous purpose.

Dionysius Solomos was born at Zante in 1798, and died in Corfu on 21st February, 1857.

Η ΦΑΡΜΑΚΩΜΕΝΗ

Τὰ τραγούδια μου τά λεγες ὅλα
Τοῦτο μόνον δὲν θέλει τὸ πῇς,
Τοῦτο μόνον δὲν θέλει τ' ἀκούσῃς,
Ἄχ! τὴν πλάκα τοῦ τάφου κρατεῖς!

Ὦ παρθένα! ἂν ἠμπόρειαν οἱ κλάψαις
Πεθαμένου νὰ δώσουν ζωή,
Τόσαις ἔκαμα κλάψαις γιὰ σένα,
Ποῦ θελ' ἔχῃς τὴν πρώτη πνοή.

Συφορά! σὲ θυμοῦμ' ἐκαθόσουν
Σ' τὸ πλευρό μου μὲ πρόσωπο ἀχνό·
"Τί ἔχεις;" σοῦ πα, καὶ σὺ μ' ἀποκρίθης·
"Θὰ πεθάνω, φαρμάκι θὰ πιῶ."

Μὲ σκληρότατο χέρι τὸ πῆρες,
Ὡραία κόρη, κι' αὐτὸ τὸ κορμί,
Ποῦ τοῦ ἔπρεπε φόρεμα γάμου,
Πικρὸ σάβανο τώρα φορεῖ.

Τὸ κορμί σου ἐκεῖ μέσα 's τὸν τάφο
Τὸ στολίζει σεμνὴ παρθενιά·
Τοῦ κακοῦ σ' ἀδικοῦσεν ὁ κόσμος,
Καὶ σοῦ φώναξε λόγια κακά.

Τέτοια λόγια ἂν ἠμπόρειες ν' ἀκούσῃς,
Ὄχ τὸ στόμα σου τ' ἤθελε βγῇ;
"Τὸ φαρμάκι, ποῦ ἐπῆρα, καὶ οἱ πόνοι,
" Δὲν ἐστάθηκαν τόσο σκληροί."

Κόσμε ψεύτη! ταῖς κόραις ταῖς μαύραις
Κατατρέχεις ὅσο εἶν' ζωνταναῖς,
Σκληρὲ κόσμε! καὶ δὲν τοὺς λυπᾶσαι
Τὴν τιμήν, ὅταν εἶναι νεκραῖς.

Σώπα, σώπα! θυμήσου πῶς ἔχεις
Θυγατέρα, γυναῖκα, ἀδελφή·
Σώπα, ἡ μαύρη κοιμᾶται 's τὸ μνῆμα,
Καὶ κοιμᾶται παρθένα σεμνή.

Θὰ ξυπνήσῃ τὴν ὕστερη ἡμέρα,
Εἰς τὸν κόσμον ὀμπρὸς νὰ κριθῇ,
Καὶ 's τὸν Πλάστη κινῶντας μὲ σέβας
Τὰ λευκά της τὰ χέρια, θὰ πῇ·

"Κύττα μέσα 's τὰ σπλάχνα μου, Πλάστη!
" Τὰ φαρμάκωσα, ἀλήθεια, ἡ πικρή,
" Καὶ μοῦ βγῆκε ὀχ τὸ νοῦ μου, Πατέρα,
" Ποῦ πλασμένα μοῦ τά χες 'Εσύ·

"Ὅμως κύττα 's τὰ σπλάχνα μου μέσα,
" Ποῦ τὸ κρῖμά τους κλαῖνε, καὶ πές,
" Πὲς τοῦ κόσμου, ποὺ φώναξε τόσα,
" 'Εδῶ μέσα ἂν ἦν' ἄλλαις πληγαῖς."

Τέτοια, ὀμπρὸς εἰς τὸν Πλάστη κινῶντας
Τὰ λευκά της τὰ χέρια, θὰ πῇ.
Σώπα, κόσμε! κοιμᾶται 's τὸ μνῆμα,
Καὶ κοιμᾶται παρθένα σεμνή.

THE POISONED MAIDEN.

You could recite the whole of my songs.
Here is one you will never repeat,
To this one you never will listen,
Alas! you are hid in the tomb!

Oh, maiden, if tearful laments,
New life could procure for the dead,
The tears that for you I have shed
Might restore the first breath that you drew.

Ah me! I remember you sat
By my side, and your features were pale.
"What is wrong?" I asked. You exclaimed:
"I will swallow the death-draught, and die."

From a hand that ne'er trembled you drank it,
Oh, beauteous maid! and that form
Which should have been wearing a bride's robe
Lies wrapped in a dismal shroud.

But that form, in the grave now lying,
Is adorned with virginity chaste.
The world has gravely wronged you,
Has wronged you with evil reports.

If those slanders you now could but hear,
What words from your lips would fall?—
"The draught that I drained, and its anguish,
Were easier to bear than they."

Oh, treacherous world! Poor maidens
Ye hound from the realms of life.
Oh, callous world! ye revere not
Their honour e'en after their death.

Be silent! be silent! Remember
A wife, daughter, sister, is thine.
Be silent! the poor maid is sleeping,
In her chastity, there in the tomb.

At the great Judgment day she will rise,
And in front of you all she will stand,
And, to the Creator extending
Her white hands, will rev'rently say:

"Behold Thou my vitals, my Maker,
All steeped in the poison I drank.
Oh Father, I never reflected
That they were the work of Thy hands.

"But now look thou into my vitals,
Which my crime are bewailing, and tell
That world, which repeated those slanders,
If, besides, other wounds are not there."

Thus she to her Maker, extending
Her hands, white and stainless, will speak.
So silence! she sleeps in the grave,
And a stainless virgin she sleeps.

ΥΜΝΟΣ ΕΙΣ ΤΗΝ ΕΛΕΥΘΕΡΙΑΝ

Σὲ γνωρίζω ἀπὸ τὴν κόψη
Τοῦ σπαθιοῦ τὴν τρομερή,
Σὲ γνωρίζω ἀπὸ τὴν ὄψη,
Ποῦ μὲ βία μετράει τὴν γῆ.

Ἀπ' τὰ κόκκαλα βγαλμένη
Τῶν Ἑλλήνων τὰ ἱερά,
Καὶ σὰν πρῶτα ἀνδρειωμένη,
Χαῖρε, ὦ χαῖρε, Ἐλευθεριά !

Ἐκεῖ μέσα ἐκατοικοῦσες
Πικραμένη, ἐντροπαλή,
Κ' ἕνα στόμα ἀκαρτεροῦσες,
Ἔλα πάλι, νὰ σοῦ πῇ.

Ἄργειε νἄλθῃ ἐκείνη ἡ μέρα,
Καὶ ἦταν ὅλα σιωπηλά,
Γιατὶ τά σκιαζε ἡ φοβέρα,
Καὶ τὰ πλάκωνε ἡ σκλαβιά.

Δυστυχής ! παρηγορία
Μόνη σοῦ ἔμενε, νὰ λὲς
Περασμένα μεγαλεῖα,
Καὶ διηγῶντάς τα νὰ κλαῖς.

HYMN TO LIBERTY.

I know thee by the terrible edge
Of thy falchion keen and bright,
I know thee by thy lightning glance
Which measures the earth in a flash.

Thou art sprung from the sacred bones
Of Greeks who have passed away ;
And still as in days past, undaunted,
I hail thee, oh, Liberty.

It was there that thou wert dwelling,
And wert both melancholy and shy ;
And a voice thou wert ever expecting
To bid thee once more return.

That day was long in dawning,
And all things were stricken dumb ;
For they were o'ershadowed by terror,
And by slavery weighted down.

Oh, Liberty ! unhappy Liberty !
For thee one solace remained—
To reflect upon greatness departed
And, reflecting upon it, to weep.

Η ΚΑΤΑΣΤΡΟΦΗ ΤΩΝ ΨΑΡΩΝ

Ἐστῶν Ψαρῶν τὴν ὁλόμαυρη ράχη
Περπατῶντας ἡ Δόξα μονάχη.
Μελετᾷ τὰ λαμπρὰ παλληκάρια,
Καὶ 'ς τὴν κόμη στεφάνι φορεῖ
Γινομένο ἀπὸ λίγα χορτάρια
Ποῦ εἶχαν μείνῃ 'ς τὴν ἔρημη γῆ.

THE DESTRUCTION OF PSARA

On the blackened slopes of Psara
Liberty, wandering alone,
On the noble brave is musing ;
And wears on her hair a wreath
Made from the scanty herbage,
Left on the desolate land.

Archaeology.

THE MAID OF ANCIO.

A Striking Interpretation.

Mr. Svoronos, the eminent Greek archæologist, at the last meeting of the Greek Archæological Society, gave a striking interpretation of the statue of the Maid of Ancio, which was lately purchased by the Italian Government. As this event is one of great importance to the art-loving world, we give a very full report of Mr. Svoronos' communication. In order that all possible light may be thrown upon this interesting subject, we invite the criticisms and suggestions of our archæological readers, which we shall be pleased to publish in our columns.

The clue to Mr. Svoronos' interpretation was furnished by a coin of Pellene, in Thessaly, of the classical period, which bore a representation of a maiden in a posture almost exactly similar to that of the statue of Ancio. Having discovered that the figure on this coin represented the famous Thessalian Sibyl, whose name was Manto, a daughter of the renowned Theban prophet Teiresias, he remembered some verses of Euripides, which described in detail a statue resembling that of the Maid, and from which it was practically certain that the sculptor drew his inspiration. These verses are from the *Phoenissae* of the great tragedian (842-852), in

which Teiresias, having been called by the archon to prophesy regarding the result of the siege of the town by the Seven, says to his daughter Manto, at the moment of their entrance to the tent of Creon:

ἡγοῦ πάροιθε, θύγατερ· ὡς τυφλῷ ποδὶ
ὀφθαλμὸς εἶ σὺ, ναυβάταισιν ἄστρον ὥς
δεῦρ' εἰς τὸ λευρὸν πέδον ἴχνος τιθεῖσ' ἐμὸν
πρόβαινε, μὴ σφαλῶμεν· ἀσθενὴς πατήρ.
Κλήρους τέ μοι φύλασσε παρθένῳ χερὶ,
οὓς ἔλαβον οἰωνίσματ' ὀρνίθων μαθὼν
θάκοισιν ἐν ἱεροῖσιν, οὗ μαντεύομαι.

Further on (1860-1867) Teiresias, exhibiting the plate, says to Manto:

Κόπῳ παρεῖμαι γοῦν Ἐρεχθειδῶν ἄπο
δεῦρ' ἐκκομισθεὶς τοῖς πάροιθεν ἡμέρας.
Κἀκεῖ γὰρ ἦν τις πόλεμος Εὐμόλπου δορός,
οὗ καλλινίκους Κεκροπίδας ἔθηκ' ἐγώ
καὶ τόνδε χρυσοῦν στέφανον, ὡς ὁρᾷς, ἔχω
λαβὼν ἀπαρχὰς πολεμίων σκυλευμάτων.

Both of these extracts represent vividly the beautiful and touching group of the blind old Teiresias returning on foot from Athens, and entering the tent under the guidance of his youthful daughter Manto, who carefully bears on a plate the sacred utensils which he employed in forecasting the future. On these utensils there was at the same time the golden wreath of honour bestowed upon him by the Athenians for having predicted their victory. The arguments which Mr. Svoronos produced in support of his theory are the following:—

Who Was Manto?

By all the archæologists who have studied the statue of the Maid of Ancio, the aristocratic bearing and exquisite beauty of the face were remarked as strikingly in contrast with the neglected appearance of the dress, which is gathered up as if in preparation for a journey. Indeed, Manto was a descendant of the aristocratic house of the Theban Spartoi, and was considered at the time of the capture of the town the most beautiful maiden of Thebes. The manner in which the dress is disposed is explained by the fact that she was journeying from Athens; and the humble bearing of the maid and the modesty of her dress are accounted for by the fact that the Manto of Euripides is not the glorious independent prophetess of the legend, but merely a servant to her father in the temple.

The maid of Ancio has the appearance of walking with the care which Euripides' Teiresias urges upon his daughter. While she walks she bears on a salver those lots which her father recommends her to carry with great care, in order that she may not lose them while she walks. By studying the nature of these lots of Teiresias, Mr. Svoronos proved, by quotations from many ancient texts, that they were not merely borne on the hands, but were contained in a box like that the feet of which are preserved upon the salver carried by the Maid At the same time, he showed by various quotations that there was on the salver not only the golden wreath mentioned by Euripides, but also the other utensils of which Teiresias made use during his prophecies. These utensils, which furnish the clue to what reposed upon the salver borne by the Maid, were the following: First, a branch of the sacred olive, the leaves of which were cast into the prophetic urn before the lots were drawn. Second, a thick square cloth, which was used to cover the urn during the night the prophecy was made. This covering in its ancient dimensions, shape, and thickness, is still employed by the Christian Church to cover the sacramental cup in which the holy mystery is taking place. Third, the curved prophetic rod, which in Latin was called *ituus*, and in Greek λιτυον.

By comparison with other small Arcadian statues of great antiquity, Mr. Svoronos proved that the rod was the famous golden one which the God of Omens, Zeus Lycaeus, of Arcadia, bestowed upon Teiresias, so that he should rule and prophesy by its means. This rod, having been inherited by Manto, was brought to Italy after the death of her father. It is only the curved upper part of it that has been preserved in the statue, and there it was placed partly under the casket containing the prophetic lots, as shown in our illustration.

Maid or Youth?

Thus far as to details. Some months ago there was unexpectedly raised some doubt as to the sex of the person represented by the statue. Those who argued that it represented a youth based their contention upon the appearance of the profile, which is not unlike that of a young man. Mr. Svoronos admits that this view is not without justification ; he agrees that the artist may have purposely left the sex of the statue doubtful, as, judging from artistic and mythological records, this view is justified by the following facts : Manto was a person who lived one-half of her life as a woman and the other half as a man ; and this would perhaps impel the artist to give to the statue the features of both sexes. Secondly, shortly before the date of Euripides' *Phoenissae*, his famous rival, Sophocles, had twice represented, in *Œdipus Tyrannus* and *Antigone*, the picture of old Teiresias being guided, once by his daughter, and again by a youth. It was therefore natural that the artist, who, according to Mr. Svoronos, was not only a Greek but an Athenian, should be unwilling to depart from the well-known tradition which endowed the attendant of Teiresias with dual sex characteristics.

A Group or a Single Piece.

Another startling declaration of Mr. Svoronos was to the effect that the statue was not an independent figure, but it originally formed part of a group composed of Manto accompanied by her old blind father, who leans upon her shoulder for support and guidance. This is not only rendered probable by the verse of Euripides, but is clearly shown by the fact, hitherto unexplained, that the back part and left side of the statue are left unfinished by the artist—not because it was intended to be placed upon a shrine, thus exposing only the front and right side to view, as some authorities contended, but because the back and left side were masked by the individual who accompanied the maid.

As to the probable fate of the missing statue of Teiresias, Mr. Svoronos suggests that it might have been one of those headless statues found in the summer palace of Nero. He pointed out that, soon after the discovery of the statue of the Maid of Ancio, there was found in the possession of a dealer in antiquities in Rome an exquisite marble head of a blind old man, which was purchased for the Munich Museum by the German archaeologist Hardnig. Two other copies of this head were found near Rome and Ancio a considerable time ago, which were generally regarded as heads of the Cretan prophet Epimenides, who was supposed to be asleep ; but in the opinion of Mr. Svoronos, in which opinion he is supported by the pronouncement made long before by the famous archaeologist Wingelmann, these heads represent, not a sleeping man, but the blind Teiresias ; and since all three are distinguished by exactly the same technical treatment as that of the Maid of Ancio, Mr. Svoronos concludes that one of them is that which originally formed part of the group of Teiresias and his daughter, the other two being merely copies.

The Artist's Name.

Mr. Svoronos attributes the work to Xenophon the Athenian, a collaborator of the famous Athenian sculptor, Cephissodotus, the elder brother of Praxiteles, and to Callistonikos the Boeotian. He was led to this conclusion by the following considerations :—

Teiresias and Manto were worshipped as gods only in Thebes, where there was but one temple, called, "Οἰωνοσκοπεῖον τοῦ Τειρεσίου," therefore only in that place could have been designed the particular group, which is certainly of a devotional character, and only there should we seek for the artist who created it. We know that there worked in this temple two artists, whose productions possessed all the technical characteristics that distinguished the Maid of Ancio. One of them, more skilled, more famous, and a stranger (an Athenian), executed the nude portions, while the other produced the draped parts. All the archæologists who have inspected the statue are agreed that it is not formed from a single block of marble, but the nude portions, that is, the head, shoulders, and right hand, have been sculptured out of two blocks of Parian marble by a more skilled hand, while the draped parts are of Pentelicon marble, and are by an artist of quite a different degree of skill. This conclusion is corroborated by the statements of the German archæologists Klen, Sohn, Pollak, and partly by Amelung, who, judging only by the technical characteristics of the Maid of Ancio, declare it to be the work of a celebrated Athenian sculptor of the school of Praxiteles, but with a technique of his own. Further, the striking resemblance of the technical characteristics of the Maid of Ancio with those of the exquisite Boeotian Maidens of Tanagra is very clearly explained, the author of most of the latter being almost certainly Callistonikos, who was at the head of that Boeotian school of art which gave birth to the Tanagra Maidens.

Enterprising Nero.

Mr. Svoronos gave the following reasons for the group being discovered in Ancio :—

It is well known that the Emperor Nero was accustomed not only to bear away statues wholesale from Greece to his summer palace, like the five hundred which he took from Delphi, but also by selection. The motive which prompted his selection was sometimes the great artistic value of the work, as in the case of the famous Eros of Praxiteles, which he took from Thespide in Boeotia, or the singular (for Nero) mythological significance of the work, as with the statue of Odysseus, which he caused to be detached from the group of the eight rivals of Hector in Olympia, and brought to Ancio, because Ancio was reputed to have been founded by the son of Odysseus. Having for this reason conveyed the statue of Odysseus to Ancio, it is probable that the same motive impelled him to convey thither also the statues of Teiresias and Manto, who were very closely connected with the same place. Indeed, we know that Manto came to Latium after the capture of her native town and the death of her father. She gave her name to the city of Mantua, afterwards changing her appellation to to Τιβουρτία Σίβυλλα, and finally identifying herself with the renowned goddesses of divination, *The Fortunae*, of the leading oracular towns of Italy, Praeneste and Ancio.

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REVIEW.

The Cilician Vespers.*

Mr. Adossidès' work contains a detailed account of the massacres which, only a few months ago and under the constitutional rule of the Young Turks, deluged one of the fairest provinces of Asia Minor in blood. The great plain of Armenian Cilicia, which encircles the bay of Alexandretta, is famous for its natural beauty and the luxuriance of its vegetation. The vine, the orange, the peach grow in abundance; and corn, barley and cotton yield bountiful harvests. The Armenians, the ancient inhabitants of the region, are intelligent and enterprising. Within recent years they have not only introduced modern agricultural machinery and established new branches of industry, but fostered education and created a new interest in the literature and history of their race. It was this fair region which race hatred, excited by cupidity and envy, transformed in a few days into a land of lamentation and death.

In his book Mr. Adossidès asserts that he can discover no proof in support of the theory that the Cilician massacres were the work of emissaries of Abdul Hamid, who might have hoped by this means to set back the constitutional movement in Turkey. The cause of the terrible events lay much nearer the surface. From the earliest times the Christian has been regarded by the Mohammedan as an inferior being who existed simply for the benefit of the Mussulman, whose traditional privilege it was to enrich himself by the spoliation of his natural victim. As a Government official, speaking of the situation in Cilicia, once significantly remarked: "We wait till the hive is filled with honey, and then seize the first opportunity of gathering it." The promulgation of the Constitution, which promised—at least, in theory—to terminate the traditional right of the Mussulman to prey upon the Christian, was regarded by the Turks in Cilicia with ill-concealed hatred; and this feeling was intensified on finding the Armenians everywhere preparing to celebrate the dawn of the new era. The Constitution might promise equality and fraternity; but it was not possible to allow the dogs of Christians to regard themselves as brothers and equals of the true believers. Common-sense and the Koran both forbade it; self-interest, more powerful than either, likewise forbade it. The Mussulmans were, and should remain, the privileged people. The dogs of Christians should be taught a lesson.

The storm broke on the 15th of April, 1909. Signs were not wanting that all had been carefully arranged beforehand. On the fatal morning every Mussulman was seen to be wearing a white head-dress, instead of the usual coloured one; and all the shops belonging to Mussulmans were conspicuously marked with the word ISLAM. Two days before, on the 13th, Adana had been invaded by a horde of ruffians, Bashi-Bazouks and Kurds, who had been summoned from the surrounding districts. Most of these were armed with swords, hatchets, and great clubs studded with nails; and those who lacked weapons were provided with them at the barracks. Up to the last moment the Vali, Djevad Bey, protested vehemently that these sinister preparations conveyed no menace to the Christians.

What happened when the slaughter actually began we shall give in Mr. Adossidès' own words.

> "About 11 o'clock shots resounded from various parts of the town; at first singly, then with increasing frequency, and finally fast as hail. Everywhere arose shouts of 'Smite—smite the infidels!'—so fierce that at times they drowned the rattle of the firearms. Everywhere it became a man-hunt, a fierce rush upon people mad with terror. Distracted men, women, and children, flying aimlessly in all directions, crash against the walls and drop as if shot. They are slain with bullets, knives, clubs, hatchets, and stones . . . . . They are massacred beneath the very eyes of the authorities, with the assistance of police-officers, who act as sentinels and point out to the murderers the prey which is about to escape. And everywhere after murder comes pillage; after pillage, burning."

The frightful scenes continued all through the night and during the following day. Here and there a few Armenians, armed with revolvers, fought with the determination of despair. When the Turkish guards deserted the missions to participate in the slaughter, it was a handful of Armenians who undertook to defend them.

The picture which Mr. Adossidès paints of the Mussulman horde, weary of slaughter, and seeking recreation in gloating over the fiendish tortures to which they subjected their miserable prisoners, is not pleasant reading, and we shall not harry the feelings of our readers by describing the revolting orgy. Suffice it to say that in frightful and disgusting bestiality it surpasses anything we have ever read, even in the annals of the most debased savages.

The first massacre was followed by a second a week later. The presumption of the Armenians in seeking to defend themselves when attacked had aroused the Mussulman populace to a pitch of ungovernable fury. A few days after the massacre, several European warships appeared at Mersine; and this act of international intervention fanned their fury into a fresh blaze. On Saturday the 24th there appeared at Adana several battalions of the Young Turk "Constitutional" soldiers, and these, instead of repressing disorder, immediately proceeded to organise fresh outrages. As a preliminary step the Armenian population was disarmed, and those capable of offering resistance were thrown into prison. Aided by the populace, these 'Constitutional' soldiers then set to work to complete the destruction begun a week before. With pumps and tanks of petroleum they sought out the buildings where the Armenians had taken refuge, and after drenching them with petroleum, set them ablaze. We give Mr. Adossidès' description of the destruction of one of these.

He says:—"Here is the great Armenian Abgarian institution, a college and boarding-school, wherein are penned 2,000 human beings, many of them sick or wounded, the survivors of the slaughter of the preceding week. The troops surround the building, the firemen drench it with petroleum; and it is then set on fire by great torches or by balls of blazing cotton. Soon the school resembles an immense furnace, from which ascends, amid the appalling screams of the victims, a pungent choking smell of burning flesh; . . . and around it the "Constitutional" soldiers form an immense circle, riddling with bullets all who attempt to escape."

All the schools, churches (among which was the Greek church) and other buildings where Armenians had taken refuge were treated in a similar manner; and when on the evening of April 26 the soldiers of the "army of deliverance" re-embarked laden with booty, the Armenian town of Adana was a heap of smoking ruins.

The work of extermination so successfully inaugurated at Adana was speedily in full operation throughout the whole province. When populous centres like Tarsus and Antioch had been dealt with, and most of the male population murdered in cold blood, the attention of the ravagers was directed to the lesser towns and villages, many of which were entirely obliterated. Finally, the individual farms, of which a great number existed in the fertile plain, were attacked and burnt, the proprietors and work-people, numbering frequently several hundreds of souls, massacred. On one large farm belonging to a Greek, which had been harried by the Turks for three whole days, not a single

*Arméniens et Jeunes-Turcs: Les Massacres de Cilicie. By A. Adossidès. Paris: P. V. Stock, 1910.

Christian escaped. The number of murders on this farm alone was over 400.

As had been the case at Adana, the ravagers ultimately sought relief from the monotony of mere murder by torturing many of their victims in a manner not only most inhuman, but, especially in the case of women, absolutely revolting in its sheer bestiality. M. Roqueferrier, French consul at Aleppo, said, after inspecting the scene of desolation and woe : " I believe I have seen of horrors all that a human being can see, but what I have seen upon this occasion surpasses them all."

As an indication of some of the motives which inspire the champions of the Moslem faith upon such occasions, Mr. Adossidès mentions that immediately after the massacres public auctions were held in Cilicia, at which Christian maidens were sold like so many cattle. A great number of these were purchased by dealers in human flesh, who consigned cargoes of them to different parts of Anatolia ; and even a month after the dreadful occurrences had terminated, a convoy of these girls arrived at Sivas for distribution among the Turks. The fate of these unhappy maidens, many of them of quite tender years, is too dreadful to contemplate.

As to the complicity of the authorities in the massacres, it is a significant circumstance that the irruption of a horde of the murderers into a particular district was almost invariably preceded by a message from the authorities ordering the Christians to surrender their arms ; and, when the murderers arrived, they were usually found in possession of arms and ammunition belonging to the Constitutional government.

Mr. Adossidès has carefully collected the various estimates of the number of persons murdered, and has placed them in contrast with the estimate officially issued by the Young Turk Government, and copied into most of the Western newspapers. In the French Chamber, M. Pichon put the figure at 20,000 ; missionaries upon the spot gave 25,000 to 30,000 ; the British Consul, 15,000 to 25,000 ; and the Armenian patriarch, from statistics collected upon the scene, 21,361 Christians, of whom 1,250 were Greeks. The figure at first despatched by the Young Turks to the Western Press Agencies was 1,455 ; then, as this estimate was found, when contrasted with the others, to be quite ridiculous, it was raised to 5,249.

It has been said, by apologists of the Young Turks, that the latter cannot justly be held responsible for the massacres, inasmuch as they were not in a position to prevent them. Even supposing that this were true, it cannot for a moment be contended that the Young Turk Government were not in a position to punish the miscreants who instigated and organised the slaughter. Mr. Adossidès tells us how this was simulated. One of the culprits was sentenced to three months' imprisonment—which was never carried out ; another was sentenced to deportation, which took the form of a pleasure trip to Egypt and Turkey ; the treacherous Vali of Adana was—dismissed ; and Assof Bay, who had equipped and directed 30,000 assassins in their work of slaughter, was honourably acquitted.

In his book, Mr. Adossidès describes the ghastly scenes with so much particularity of detail as to leave no manner of doubt about their veracity. In nearly every instance they are authenticated by exact data furnished by independent eyewitnesses or taken from unbiassed official reports. It may be regretted that such a damning record of Turkish brutality was not produced at the time when these outrages were fresh in the public mind ; but owing to the anxiety of the Turks to obliterate all traces of their crimes, and to prevent information from reaching Europe, this was not possible Late as it is, however, Mr. Adossidès' volume will serve to demonstrate that the nature of the Turk, even under the " Constitutional " *régime*, is as savage as ever, and will also explain the anxiety of those Christians yet under Turkish rule to escape from that domination at the earliest possible moment.

PRESS REVIEW.

The Cretan Question.

It continues to be reported that the Powers contemplate again sending a High Commissioner to Crete, though the suggestions, emanating from Turkish sources, that the Sultan will have a voice in his appointment, and even that he may be a Mussulman, naturally find no credence ; the more general idea being that M. Zaïmis, who was nominated to the post by the King of Greece in 1906, will be invited to resume office. M. Zaïmis was away on leave at the time of the Declaration of Independence in 1908, and naturally has not returned to Crete since that date. It is hard, as we said yesterday, to see what would be gained by his re-appointment. The suggested exclusion of the Mussulmans from the Chamber is an act, not of the Executive, but of the Legislature, and it is unlikely that the influence of a High Commissioner would be of any effect in inducing the majority to a change of policy. If the idea is that the Chamber might be suppressed and the Government be carried on entirely by the Chief of the Executive, it is scarcely one which will commend itself to Liberal opinion here. It would, in fact, be the removal of a small injustice by the creation of a greater.

Nor can it be ignored that the Powers have already recognised the Executive Committee which, in the autumn of 1908, assumed the functions of the High Commissioner, and that it was in the hands of this Executive that the government of the island was left when, nine months later, the foreign troops left Canea. There is nothing to show that the Committee has failed in its task. There has been no change in its attitude or its policy, and with one exception everything of which Turkey complains had been done while the Powers had, but did not take, the opportunity of preventing it. The one exception is the exclusion of the Mussulman Deputies ; an act, as we have said, of the Legislature, brought about by the provocative behaviour of the Moslems themselves. And that Act, wise or unwise, is scarcely one which calls for a reversal of the progressive policy of the past thirteen years, or which justifies a repudiation of the pledges given to the Cretans.

The past few days have given us excellent summaries of the rival claims with respect to the future political status of Crete. The Cretan case is forcefully yet moderately presented in the Note which has been handed to the Consuls of the four protecting Powers. Stress is very naturally laid upon the repeated promises that autonomy should lead ultimately to the fulfilment of the national aspirations, and especially upon that one of October 28, 1908, by which the Powers declared themselves, after the declaration of Independence, still prepared to consider in a benevolent spirit the proposal for union with Greece. The time has now come, the Cretans urge, for the fulfilment of that pledge. Their Government has, on the whole, dealt very successfully with a situation by no means easy ; but the continuation of the present anomalous situation can only make their task more and more difficult. It is only confidence in the promises of the Powers that has reconciled the people to the long postponement of their cherished ambition. But the *status quo* cannot in the nature of things be permanent. " Crete cannot exist without Greek institutions."—*Westminster Gazette.*

THE "TIMES," 23rd MAY.

"Speaking on Cretan affairs in the Turkish Chamber the other day the GRAND VIZIER apparently accepted the view of the four powers that the oath of allegiance taken by the Assembly to the KING of the HELLENES, being null and void, could not be regarded as changing the *status quo*, especially as the Ottoman Government had allowed the former occasion on which the oath had been taken to pass without protest. But he declared that the question would assume a more serious form if the majority in the Cretan Assembly were to prevent the Moslem minority from participating in the debates on account of their refusal to take the oath. The Turkish Press, which a week ago was discussing the Cretan question with praiseworthy moderation, is now, not unnaturally, showing a very different spirit. It is not merely that the Cretans have proceeded from one provocation to another. The telegrams we have published during the last few days from our Correspondents in Constantinople and Athens and with the Turkish forces in Albania all show that the revival of the Cretan question in an acute form is being used as a means of inducing the Albanians to abandon their resistance to the Turkish Government and join forces against a common enemy. The politicians who dominate the Cretan Chamber should be cautious of supplying fuel for an agitation of which the success might have serious consequences, if not for themselves, at any rate for their friends and kinsmen in Greece.

The reckless folly of the Cretan Government and Assembly is, doubtless, largely due to their conviction that, however badly they misconduct themselves, they can always rely on the four protecting Powers to save them from the natural consequences. Had they not been profoundly imbued with this faith in the inexhaustible patience of their protectors, they would scarcely have acted as they have done in face of the plain warning of the Consul-General that the exclusion of the Moslem Deputies from the Chamber would have serious consequences. It is time they were taught that everything has its limits, even the lengths to which they can be permitted to go in endangering the peace of the Near East, and with it the peace of Europe. The autonomy that they now enjoy, and which is not easily to be distinguished from complete independence, they owe to the good offices of the protecting Powers and would lose immediately if those good offices were withdrawn. Gratitude for past favours is not, perhaps, to be expected in politics; but it is intolerable that the Cretans should flout and defy the Powers on whose protection they still depend, and must continue to depend for long years to come. They are not asked to give up anything that they now possess; they have not been asked even to abandon hope of the ultimate realization of their desire to be annexed to Greece. That desire has been regarded as natural and legitimate enough, although many observers are convinced that they will repent of it, if and when it is realized. They have been asked to recognize what is obvious enough, that, for the time being their wish to become an integral part of the Hellenic Kingdom cannot be gratified. The Powers may think it the best solution, even from the Turkish point of view, of a difficult question; but it is impracticable, and, unless there occurs some drastic and unexpected change in the situation in the Near East, it will remain impracticable until the Turks themselves recognize its advantages. In the meantime the Cretans must be compelled to accept with the best grace they can, the privileges they already enjoy; and they must be compelled to abstain from conduct calculated to render those privileges intolerable to the Turks. According to the *Temps*, which is likely to be well informed on the point, SIR EDWARD GREY and M. PICHON are agreed that the Cretan question ought to to be made the subject of a definite settlement. The last exploit of the Cretans makes that conclusion almost inevitable. M. VENEZELO and his compatriots should reflect, before it is too late, that such a definite settlement could not possibly give them anything they do not already possess, and might conceivably not give them so much. And it would inevitably make it more difficult for them to realize their aspirations in the future."

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ASSETS, 31st December, 1909.	31st Dec., 1909. * Drachmae.		31st July, 1909. * Drachmae.	
Funds: Cash	4,151,941	63	3,353,186	21
Funds: Ionian Bank, Bonds	314,550	—	491,815	—
Funds: Ditto, of one and two Drachmae	408,824	—	944,573	—
In Foreign Banks: Gold	40,172,037	12	40,077,320	60
In Foreign Banks: Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	70,503	95	283,350	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds: in gold Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper „ 34,617,201.25	60,193,139	25	60,696,320	—
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,687,851	25	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,202,412	86	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	479.981	76	—	—
Bills	21,580,458	32	22,496,191	06
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,383,978	01	3,269,341	06
Advances on Securities	25,155,339	62	20,493,401	84
Advances on Merchandise	7,260,689	42	4,569,183	46
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	69,532,928	83	69,224,348	66
Loans to Communities, Harbours and other legal bodies	47,179,731	35	46,357,015	30
Maturing Loans to Communities, Harbour, etc.	101,764	89	—	—
*Agricultural Drafts	11,410,127	06	14,630,958	90
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,284,062	60	5,350,201	44
Shares in Local Companies	7,574,018	—	7,598,658	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds: Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece; Bank Bonds at 2½%	568,600	—	755,777	75
Sundry Coupons	1,334,659	37	406,354	62
Bank and Premises	9,242,705	26	9,196,924	92
*Doubtful Debts	3,463,940	75	3,427,651	85
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,284,004	46	1,381,313	56
Sundry Accounts	2,338,063	19	2,805,571	41
Sundry Foreign Acconnts	2,160,979	82	2,337,512	46
Redemption of State Participation in the profits of the Bank	1,003,520	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	480,000	—	560,000	—
Commission for the Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in in Bank Bonds	885,955	46	50,000	—
Sundries			479,713	94
Dr	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

LIABILITIES, 31st December, 1909.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank „ 49,820,329.73	125,831,099	84	111,598,905	15
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,000,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	7,501,580	56	12,714,932	26
Deposits without Interest	20,668,794	94	28,231,147	70
Demand Notes	1,087,826	71	1,340,364	28
Unclaimed Dividends	177,950	—	723,525	—
Dividends of the last two quarters of 1909	2,000,000	—	—	—
International Financial Control: A/c of payment of Revenues affected: Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes „ 4,282,520.64	4,493,861	84	5,046,158	94
Service of the State Loans—Gold	2,187,519	90	418,971	75
Ditto, in Bank Notes			992,707	97
Service of different loans in Bank notes	22,975	90	—	—
State Deposits, Gold	15,816	70	3,295	78
State Deposits, Bank Notes	70,505	95	15,062	65
State Deposits: For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway: Gold	111,718	26	283,350	83
State Deposits (bequeth of Syngros)	1,104,882	18	2,360	21
Deposits at Interest	117,585,023	88	118,779,766	33
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%	39,856,410	—	40,574,160	—
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes, at 2½%	20,242,900	—	20,367,900	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	2,583,818	—	2,176,306	—
Ditto., Bank Notes at 2½%	1,001,417	50	309,740	—
Savings Bank	13,860,982	70	13,234,498	67
Bills to be paid	916,250	15	—	—
Interest of mortgage loans	1,532,386	18	—	—
Interest of simple loans	451,275	70	—	—
Sundries	280,823	87	1,618,314	79
Dr.	406,085,817	95	401,681,368	31

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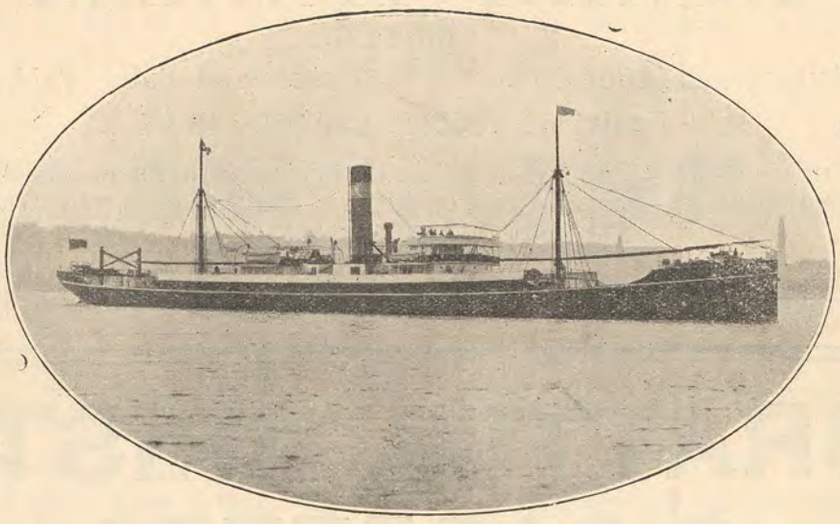

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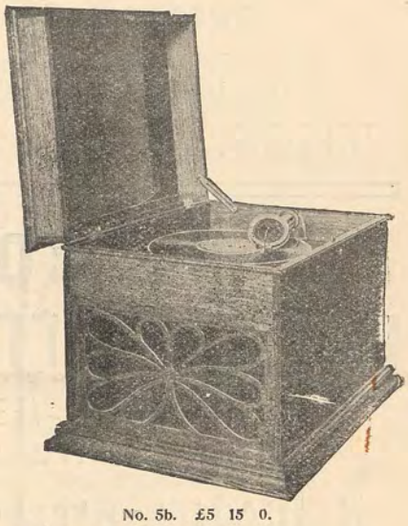

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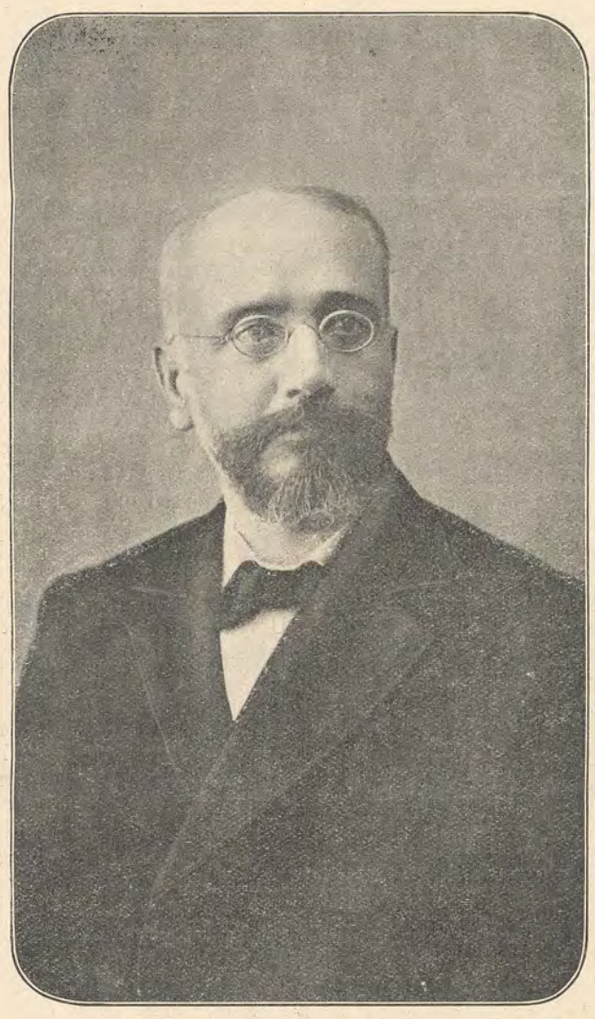
"THE PARTING OF THE WAYS."

Since the courageous and opportune intervention of M. Venizelos about a year ago secured the dissolution of the Military League and the convocation of the National Assembly, the course of events in Greece has shaped itself with unexpected rapidity. When the threatened *impasse* had been successfully overcome, the cool self-possession and wide experience of M. Dragoumis, who assumed office immediately after the resignation of M. Mavromichalis, were most usefully exercised in surmounting the difficulties still remaining to be dealt with, smoothing away the friction caused by the conflicting currents in the State, and preparing the way for the meeting of the National Assembly

When the Revisionist Chamber was duly assembled M. Dragoumis tendered his resignation to King George pointing out that as his mandate had been received from the old Chamber, he felt it incumbent upon him to relinquish his position in order that the new Chamber might be free to follow its own inclination in the formation of a Government. King George thereupon summoned the leaders of the various parties in the State, and, after realizing the hopelessness of any one of them securing a working majority in the Chamber, decided to entrust M. Venizelos with the task of forming a Government thereby giving expression to the evident trend of public opinion. This onerous duty was, on account of the existing party conditions, at first declined by M. Venizelos, who told his Majesty that Greece had now arrived at the parting of the ways, one of which led to the perpetuation of the present deplorable state of things, the other to drastic reforms which within a few years would change the complexion of affairs in Greece.



MR. ELEUTHERIOS VENIZELOS.

His Majesty was greatly impressed by the frank manner in which the position had been presented to him, and by the evident grasp of the situation displayed by M. Venizelos, and, expressing his complete confidence in that statesman, commanded him once more to go on with the formation of a Government.

After a little delay, M. Venizelos proceeded to carry out his Majesty's commands, and on the 19th of October he laid before the King a list of the members of his proposed Cabinet. These were sworn in next day, and on the 21st they appeared before the Assembly and presented the customary statement of the Government's policy. This was very plain-spoken as well as brief; it recommended the Assembly to restrict its activities to the revision of the non-fundamental articles of the

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Constitution, which was the purpose for which it had been elected,and to waive for the moment any rights which it might consider itself entitled to possess to function as a legislative body. The latter duty, it was pointed out, could be more properly performed by the ordinary Chamber which would be summoned immediately the work of revision was complete. It was the intention of the Government to apply impartially the existing laws until these should be modified in accordance with its programme; and it would unhesitatingly oppose, and even proceed to employ force against, any political group which should set on foot any movement of a reactionary nature.

The advent of M. Venizelos to power, although clearly foreseen by everybody, was received by the old party leaders, especially MM. Rhallis and Mavromichalis, with signs of marked displeasure. This was clearly evident upon the first occasion on which an attempt was made to secure a vote of the House, the adherents of the old leaders leaving in a body, thus depriving the Chamber of a quorum and precipitating a crisis.

M. Venizelos immediately tendered to the King the resignation of his Cabinet. His Majesty, however, refused to accept it, commanding the Premier to return to the House and take another vote. This M. Venizelos proceeded to do on the following day, and upon this occasion, although the followers of MM. Rhallis and Mavromichalis again absented themselves, the Chamber accorded to the Premier a substantial amount of support. But this did not satisfy M. Venizelos. A careful inspection of the votes convinced him that this sudden augmentation of support was apparent rather than real,and that it would be impossible for him to accomplish any work of a practical nature with a Chamber composed of such elements. He therefore advised the King to dissolve the House and order another election.

The suggestion of the Premier was adopted by his Majesty, and the 11th of December was fixed as the date of the elections for a new Chamber which should qe summoned to meet at the beginning of January. This resolute action of M. Venizelos was hailed with almost universal approval throughout Greece, and there is every indication that the new Chamber, when it meets, will contain a large majority in favour of the Premier's programme of reform.

Should this prognostication turn out to be correct, the opening of a new era for Greece will have begun. Already in the short period that he has held the reins of power M. Venizelos has made his strong personality felt in many and various ways. Into the departments of the Army and Navy especially, which the Premier has taken under his own special charge, a new spirit of discipline and devotion to duty has been infused, and the way prepared for a thorough reorganization of these services. In other departments as well, the firm yet tactful manner in which unpleasant occurrences have been dealt with and serious difficulties overcome convinces everyone that there has been instituted a new order of things which will place the prosperity of Greece upon a secure foundation.

GRÆCO-BULGARIAN RELATIONS.

The chauvinistic policy of the Young Turks and their cynical disregard for the most elementary principles of constitutional liberty, coupled with the usual severities and abuses perpetrated upon innocent Greeks and Bulgarians by local authorities in Macedonia, have brought about an unexpected *raprochement* between these two Christian races in Turkey, who only a short time ago were engaged in a disastrous war of mutual extermination. This welcome change if carried to its proper conclusion will not only gratify the friends of peace, but will be of the greatest advantage to both the parties concerned and to Turkey itself.

The reconciliation of the two most important Christian elements of the Turkish Empire, upon the productive activities of whom depends great part of Turkey's prosperity, cannot but prove beneficial to that State, while the mutual understanding of Greeks and Bulgarians, and the development of their national characteristics, which in many respects are the compliment of one another, will in a short space of time bring about an alteration in the aspect of the countries which are inhabited by these races and which have hitherto been under a blight

The origin of this movement is to be found, strangely enough, in the understanding arrived at by individuals of each of the two persecuted races, who combined for the purpose of mutual protection and support. The success of this movement induced the leaders on both sides to endeavour to effect a reconciliation on broad lines between the two races,—a reconciliation which should include a settlement of religious as well as of political differences.

The firstfruits of this good understanding were manifested at the opening of the present Turkish Parliament, when the Bulgarian deputies, meeting the Œcumenical Patriarch returning from the Assembly, saluted him reverentially and expressed a desire to be allowed to visit him at the Patriarchate. The Patriarch thereupon bestowed his blessing upon the deputies, and answered that he would be delighted to receive them at his residence. A few days later the projected visit was paid, many expressions of goodwill and esteem being exchanged between the Patriarch and his visitors; and shortly afterwards the Exarch despatched a very cordial letter to the Patriarch expressing a hope that good relations would be established between their respective bodies, and that existing differences would soon be smoothed away.

This happy establishment of amicable relations between the two races has inaugurated a movement towards a good understanding between the Greek and Bulgarian States which it is hoped will assume a permanent character, and cement the two races together in a permanent friendship from which nothing but mutual gain can ensue.

One important factor in producing this excellent result has been the much-discussed Turco-Roumanian understanding, which, although denied by the statesmen of both these countries, seems neverthless real in substance if not in form. The effect of an *entente* between these two Powers, relying as they do upon the Triple Alliance for support, would be much too great to be ignored by those who are interested in maintaining the balance of power in the Near East, and consequently it is not improbable that a Græco-Bulgarian understanding would be favourably regarded by some of the Great Powers. The union of the commercial and intellectual qualities of the Greeks, and their position as an influential maritime race, with the excellent capabilities of the Bulgarians as soldiers and as agriculturists ought to contribute to the mutual welfare of these two nations, and protect them from aggressive designs on the part of unfriendly powers.

The New Greek Ministry.

The new Greek Ministry, which was sworn in on the 20th of October, is constituted as follows :—

MR. E. VENIZELOS, *Premier and Minister of War and Marine.*
MR. J. GRYPARIS, *Minister of Foreign Affairs.*
MR. L. COROMILLAS, *Minister of Finance.*
MR. E. REPOULIS, *Minister of the Interior.*
MR. E. BENACHI, *Minister of Commerce and Industry.*
MR. N. DEMETRAKOPOULOS, *Minister of Justice.*
MR. A. ALEXANDRIS, *Minister of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs.*

Mr. Venizelos, although for the first time a member of the Greek Government, is not an unknown figure in Greek politics. His distinguished career in Crete, and the part which he played last year in securing the dissolution of the Military League and the summoning of a National Assembly, has made his name a familiar word not only throughout Greece but also in the West. Descended from an ancient Athenian family of eminent position, he was born in Crete in 1864, where his parents were at the time residing. He received his education in Syra, whither the family had removed during the Cretan revolt of 1866, and entered the University of Athens. He obtained his degree of Doctor of Laws in 1885, and almost immediately thereafter returned to Crete to his native town of Canea, where he at once took a prominent position among his legal brethren. Having won the confidence and esteem of his compatriots,he was repeatedly elected as their representative on the Cretan Administrative Body ; and up till 1889 he collaborated with the well-known Cretan leader, Mr. Michelidakis, but the unhappy ending of the premature revolt of 1898, which resulted in the loss to the island of its privileges, placed him for a time in obscurity, along with the other politicians of Crete.

The rising of 1896, which was followed by the revolt of 1897, again drew Mr. Venizelos into the political arena. When Crete was liberated from the yoke of Turkey, and was constituted an autonomous State, the present Premier was among those who formed the first Cabinet summoned by Prince George. A few years later, disagreeing with the policy of the Prince, he not only resigned his official position but actually took the extreme step of organising armed opposition to the Prince's Government. After the Prince departed from the Island in 1906, and Mr. Zaimis had been installed as High Commissioner, Mr. Venizelos again resumed office, and practically dominated the affairs of Crete until summoned by the mother country to lead the way in the work of regeneration.

The advent of Mr. Venizelos into Greek politics at the present juncture cannot fail to have a beneficial effect upon the course of events in the Kingdom. His masterly grasp of the situation and absolute fearlessness in advocating the course which his sagacity and experience indicate as the right one, are qualities which must commend him to everyone who has the welfare of Greece at heart. His sacrifices for his country in the past are evidence that his patriotism is genuine and disinterested. Above all, his determination to carry through constitutionally, yet thoroughly and effectively, those reforms which are necessary to the regeneration of his country and to the welfare of the mass of the Greek people, as well as his readiness in suppressing with a strong hand anything savouring of violence or unconstitutional procedure, mark him out as a man specially fitted to deal with the grave situation which has lately arisen. His Majesty places implicit reliance upon the ability of Mr. Venizelos as a statesman and administrator, and we are confident that the future will prove that that confidence has not been misplaced.

Mr. Gryparis, who was summoned to Athens from his important diplomatic post as Greek representative at Constantinople, has distinguished himself in all the diplomatic posts which he has been called upon to occupy, especially in Egypt. His extraordinary foresight and uncommon activity, combined with a notable refinement and charm of manner, won for him the esteem of all his diplomatic colleagues in Constantinople, and of the statesmen of Turkey—a circumstance which contributed largely to the maintenance of friendly relations between that power and Greece, even in the most trying circumstances.

Mr. Coromillas has been called to the Ministry of Finance from his post as Diplomatic Representative of Greece at Washington. His present position is one which he is peculiarly fitted to occupy, seeing that he has made finance the study of a lifetime. He made his entry into the diplomatic service as Consul-General of Greece in Salonica at a very trying period, during which he rendered services of great value to his country. His mastery of modern methods, combined with his cool and practical turn of mind, will, we hope, set the finances of Greece upon a secure foundation.

Mr. Repoulis, a distinguished journalist and a most enlightened and sober politician, is occupying the post of Minister for the first time. The great experience which he acquired as a journalist and a prominent member of the Young Greek party, together with the true patriotic spirit by which all his actions are inspired, will no doubt unite to make of him an excellent Minister of Home Affairs, in which department so much yet remains to be done.

Mr. Benachi will be at home in the newly constituted Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Not only does he possess all the requisite commercial knowledge and experience required to fit him for the post, but he is the head of one of the largest commercial houses in the world. The numerous donations which he has made to the nation at different times, and the transparent sincerity and ardour of his patriotism, secured for him such love and esteem in the hearts of his countrymen that he was placed at the head of the list on the occasion of the recent elections.

Mr. Demetrakopoulos is the most distinguished member of the Bar at Athens. The thoroughly scientific character of his education and his complete knowledge of the defects that exist in the administration of justice in Greece, seconded by his fearless courage, will, we believe, secure that thorough reformation in the department of Justice which has been too long overdue.

Mr. Alexandris belongs to the younger school of Greek politicians, and is well equipped with a sound knowledge of the needs of the department over which he has been called to preside. He has won by his own unaided efforts his position in the forefront of Greek politics to-day. His modern ideas and up-to-date methods will, we hope, galvanize his department into a greater spirit of activity, and impart to it a determination to fall in with the progressive ways of modern times.

The entire Cabinet, apart from the excellent natural endowments of its members, has the immense advantage of not being identified in any way with the nepotism and party rancour which was so often displayed by the older political parties, and which rendered difficult and often impossible any projected scheme for remedying evils the existence of which was recognised by all.

The Last of the Palæologi—II.

The first instalment of our article upon this subject dealt, as will be remembered, with the fate of one branch of the house of Palæologus. It recorded how Theodore Palæologus came to England about 1615, finally settling at Landulph, in Cornwall,a nd dying there in 1636. Besides tracing his descent through four generations from Thomas, younger brother of the last Emperor of Constantinople, it followed the career of Theodore's four children until in each case it was terminated by death. The consideration of the possi-

bility of there being surviving representatives of other branches of the house was not then attempted.

The publication of our first instalment attracted a considerable amount of attention in Greece, where it was translated and published in full in the columns of the *Hestia*, one of the most influential of the Greek newspapers. The result of this publicity has been the production of a considerable quantity of information upon the subject, some of which has been communicated to us direct, and some through the columns of our contemporaries. A couple of articles which appeared in the *Hestia* subsequently to the publication of our article especially demand our attention.

The Palæologi and Zante.

The first article deals with a branch of the house of Palæologus which, after the fall of Constantinople, established itself in the vine-clad island of Zante. The first of these Palæologi to settle in Zante were the brothers Theodore and Andronicus, and, to illustrate the enduring nature of the connection thus established between the family and the island, the writer mentions the names of Palæologi who were resident there as late as the year 1630. Of Theodore no particulars are furnished, but it is recorded that Andrew, upon his arrival in Zante, was appointed to an important military command ; and some time afterwards the island of Marathonese was ceded to him by Pietro Foscolo, the Προβλεπτὸς of Zante. Andrew appears to have possessed all the qualities of a successful administrator, for he became known to his contemporaries as "the Good Ruler." On different occasions he was entrusted with important missions by the Venetian Republic ; but though he visited Venice, where both his services and his lineage would ensure him an honourable reception, he remained constant in his attachment to the island which he had made his home. In 1511, nearly sixty years after his departure from Constantinople, the historian Bembos records that "Andreas Palæologus was dwelling in Zante, in the service of the State which he loved so well."

The other members of the house of Palæologus resident in Zante at a later date, and presumably descendants of the foregoing, are these: Constantine (1512), Peter (1534), Lawrence (1583), Michael (1604), Porphyry and Christodoulos (brothers) (1630). The contributor of the foregoing information asserts that besides these members of the family of Palæologus, there were others residing in Zante, particulars regarding whom he is going to collect and publish. We shall endeavour to place the result of these investigations before our readers, who will doubtless peruse them with interest.

The Prince of Achaia.

The other article which we intend to notice deals with the descendants of the younger of the two brothers ofthe Emperor Constantine namely, Thomas, Prince of Achaia, who died at Rome in 1465. The writer, following Hopf, gives the names of Thomas's sons as Andrew and Emmanuel, and those of his daughters as Helen and Sophia. Of Andrew it is stated that he surrendered his hereditary rights first to Charles VIII of France, and afterwards to Ferdinand of Spain, dying at Rome in 1502 without heirs. Emmanuel remained on in Greece, and was by the Sultan given the administration of several towns there. He left two sons, John and Andrew, the latter of whom embraced the Mahommedan faith, and became known as Mahomet Pasha, dying in 1519. Of Thomas's two daughters, one, Helen, married Lazare, the Gospodar of Servia, while the other, Sophia, ultimately became the wife of Ivan III, of Russia, the father of Ivan the Terrible.

The same writer also refers to an interview which was once granted to him by another descendant of the ancient Imperial line, a lady at present residing in London. As we have been put in possession of the fullest information regarding this lady through the good offices of two of her friends, the Hon. A. Nelson Hood and Lieut. Spencer Beauchamp Astley, we shall treat this part of the subject in fuller detail than was done in the *Hestia*.

A Descendant of the Palæologi in London.

Princess Marie Ersilie Eugenie Orades Attardo de Bouillon di Cristoforo, or simply Princess Eugenie, as she is termed inside the circle of her intimate acquaintances, claims to be not only a direct descendant of the house of Palæologus, but a representative of the Comneni and Nicephori as well. The documents upon which this claim is based are much too voluminous and intricate for us to review them in detail. We shall not therefore do more than mention the chief.

The first concerns a certain Emmanuel di Cristoforo, who with his two sons accompanied the Grand Master of the Knights of St. John, Villers de l'Isle Adam, to Malta in the year 1530, shortly after their city of Rhodes had fallen into the hands of the Turks. The name of di Cristoforo was assumed by the family of Katakalon Ambusto about the year 1430, when Demetrius Katakalon Ambusto married a lady of Armenia, and built a church, dedicated to St. Christopher, in that country. The family of di Cristoforo (or Katakalon Ambusto) was directly related to both the Palæologi and the Comneni, one of its members having married Anna Gattilusio, a great-granddaughter of Irene Palæologus. At an earlier period Irene, the daughter of John Palæologus, married a member of the family of Gattilusio whose mother was Anna Katakalon Ambusto, a direct descendant through ten generations from the Emperor Nicephorus Katakalon Ambusto (Botoniates). A great-grandson of the latter welded another link in the connecting chain by marrying Maria, daughter of Alexis Comnenus. As these relationships are said to be authenticated by copies of historical documents from the archives of Constantinople and Rome, the relationship between the di Cristofori, Katakolon Ambusti, Palæologi and Comneni seems well established.

Princess Eugenie's Ancesty.

To substantiate her claim to direct descent from the di Cristofori, Princess Eugenie puts forward two documents: one of these was given, to her great-uncle by the Archbishop of Malta and Royal Counsellor, and certifies to the descent of that person from "a family of princes and patricians who came to Malta in 1530, after the fall of Rhodes." The other is an extract from Du Cange's history, which presents an account of the Katakalon Ambusti (or di Cristofori) from Prince Emmanuel di Cristoforo down to Maria di Cristoforo, who married Theodore Attardo de Bouillon, the grandfather of Princess Eugenie.

As we have said, the documents in possession of the Princess are too voluminous for us to attempt more than a passing glance at them. But their authenticity is fully credited by many who are in a position to test their accuracy, and consequently there are not wanting in England many who delight to honour a lady fo such illustrious descent. The Princess's circle of friends is a very large one, and some of them belong to the most influential English families.

Princess Eugenie, who was born in Malta, married Lieut.-Col. Edmund Hill Wickham, an officer in the British army. She has three sons and a daughter. The sons all adopted the profession of arms ; and when the war broke out in South Africa the two younger immediately volunteered for service at the front, where they exhibited many soldier-like qualities. They are named respectively Theodore, Montague, and Clyde.

It will to many seem a remarkable coincidence that England, where the great Emperor Manuel Palæologus found a hospitable reception in the time of adversity, and which provided a home and last resting-place for his descendant Theodore Palæologus of Landulph, should

also have become the adopted country of another scion of that illustrious race, the lady whose descent we have just been reviewing.

TWO ZANTIOTE POETS.

In previous numbers we have frequently given summaries of lectures delivered by Dr. Menardos before students attending the courses at Oxford University. The subjoined article represents a summary which we have prepared of another lecture by the same eminent authority, and we hope to be able to continue the series in future issues.

Towards the end of the eighteenth century, when the Zantiote poets were born, the Greeks were accustomed to seek their education, science and arts in the West. Unfortunately, very few Greek countries could at that time afford to send students to Western Universities. In this practice Constantinople had always taken the lead. Close by the Œcumenical Patriarchate there used to reside a well-educated circle of skilled diplomatists who knew ancient Greek fairly well, French excellently, and Turkish even better than the Turks.

It was the habit of the Phanariotes to prepare themselves for the highest administrative posts in the Ottoman Empire, and for over a century (1716-1821) they occupied the throne of the two Danubian principalities. The Phanariote women used to receive a good education as well, and they were able to translate authors like Corneille and Voltaire with ease. But two of their number did something even better, for the one gave birth to André Chénier at Constantinople and the other to Thiers at Marseilles.

The Brothers Soutsos.

To the princely family of the Soutsos belonged the two poet brothers, Alexander and Panayoti, who at the time the Greek rising took place in the Danubian principalities were studying in Paris. They wrote dramas, comedies, satires, tales, and even epic poems in Parisian rhyme, which at that time was a novelty in Greek literature. The Greek people, whose modern literature was then in its infancy, became infatuated with the innovation. Colocotronis, the hero of the War of Independence, would say to Alexander Soutsos: "Come with me; I will fight and you will write poems." But the character of the poetry produced by the Soutsi did not matter very much either to the heroes or to the poets themselves. The rising generation said: "These young noblemen have cut their poetical mantle in Paris. What wonderful poetry!" In reality the two little Phanariotes were the veriest *dilettanti*. They used to manufacture all kinds of verse; and often they translated, Ὀθνείην Μοῦσαν. Alexander in his Τουρκομάχος Ἑλλὰς pictured Satan throwing the apple of discord amongst the Greek chieftains, and Panayoti considered the Satan of his brother superior to the "Zeus, Athena and Mars of Homer." The most typical of Alexander's works are his satires; and these are said to have contributed to the assassination of the eminent President Capodistria and to the exile of King Otho. Nevertheless, when the Greeks became acquainted with better poetry, the two Soutsi were judged quite differently, and their memory, to borrow a legal phrase of Macaulay's, was sentenced to bear the costs of the trial.

The Ionian Islanders.

The sons of the Greeks of the Ionian Islands, which were fortunate in never having tasted Turkish rule, used to travel to Italy in order to study the arts.

After the fall of the Venetian Republic and the Napoleonic rule, the Ionian Islands formed in 1815 a separate state, which was placed under the protection of England. Corfu was under Venetian rule for over 400 years, but the feelings of its inhabitants were decidedly Hellenic. The Arch-Priest of Corfu, Mantzaros, at his reception of Gentilly, the commander of the French army of occupation, presented him with a copy of the *Odyssey* of Homer.

Thus Hellas, like a goddess, was ever present to the minds of her sons even when she was a mere "geographical area." This was the term applied by Metternich to Italy. But Italy was never so unfortunate as to merit the appellation. She was at ac times the land of the arts, where even the Olympi Goethe found much to admire and study.

Amongst the Ionian Islanders who journeyed to Italy shortly before 1809, when England occupied Zante, were Andreas Kalvos and Dionysius Solomos. The former was born in 1792 and the latter in 1798. Before their arrival another Zantiote, the son of a Dalmatian, fourteen years older than Kalvos, had established himself in Italy and become famous. His name was Niccolò, which he changed into Ugo Foscolo. Foscolo was renowned both as a patriot and a poet. In 1807 he published his *Sepolcri*, and in 1809 he delivered his inaugural address as Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Pavia. This took the form of a patriotic exhortation to the youth of Italy, and the immediate result which it produced was a decree of Napoleon by which not only the chair of rhetoric but the Italian Universities themselves were abolished.

Kalvos and Foscolo.

When Kalvos, who was the son of a Corfiote peasant, found himself without means of support, he appealed to his illustrious compatriot. Foscolo wrote to his friends in Zante, and besought the Zantiote community to assist Kalvos. The appeal not having met with a satisfactory response, Foscolo took Kalvos into his own home. In the same year (1813) Foscolo went to live in Switzerland, whither he was accompanied by Kalvos.

In Switzerland the two Zantiote poets lived together for about three years, a remarkable circumstance to those who knew the temperament of both men. Foscolo wrote, while in Switzerland, a bitter satire in Latin against his literary adversaries.

When Foscolo came to England in 1816, Kalvos, who was then twenty-four years of age, again accompanied him. The letters of Foscolo show that he appreciated the exceptional talent and the upright character of Kalvos.

The two Zantiote poets were not long in London until they quarrelled. It is impossible to say which of the two men was the more capricious and irreconcilable. We only know that Foscolo lost favour with his English friends as well. After distinguishing himself in the literary circles of London, he fell into poverty In vain he offered his services to the Greek Government; Greece was at that time much impoverished. After being imprisoned for debt, Foscolo died at Turnham Green in 1827. In 1871, the Italians erected to his memory an imposing tomb in the Santa Croce of Florence, where the son of Zante sleeps beside the greatest of Italy's sons.

Kalvos was wiser than his compatriot. As a teacher he lived in London with his English wife. But after the outbreak of the Greek War of Independence and the death of his wife he sailed for Greece.

Dionysius Solomos.

Before continuing the biography of Kalvos, let us turn to that of Solomos.

Solomos travelled to Italy in far greater comfort than did Kalvos. He was the son of a Count who came

from Crete, and he inherited a considerable fortune when he was only nine years old. In the following year he was sent to Venice, accompanied by his Italian tutor. For ten years he studied in Italy whatever subjects he chose. The fact of his being an orphan, and his noble birth, left his natural inclinations free play. The young Count worked very little, but the little that he did was done with all his heart. All through his life it was the same, his income being sufficient to save him from taking part in the struggle for a livelihood which had vanquished Kalvos.

In Pavia the Count studied, or rather did not study, law. But in rhetoric he was the equal of Foscolo, whom he admired. He loved to recite Vergil—a practice at that time fashionable in Italy, and to compose verses —another favourite pastime. His Italian teachers were delighted with the Count. One of them said to him one day, " Greco, tu farai dimenticare il nostro Monti."

Vicenzo Monti was at that time considered the first poet of Italy, and Solomos often saw him at Milan. It appears that he even contradicted the master, and laid down the law to him in matters of poesy. One of his precepts was that " One's mind must first strongly conceive something, and afterwards the heart feel strongly what the mind has conceived." Solomos adhered to this principle all his life, thereby greatly limiting his poetical fecundity.

We mention these particulars in order to demonstrate that both Zantiote poets had the good fortune to make the acquaintance of the best poets of Italy, and to study Italian literature " from the mouth of its creators." They also made a profound study of Latin poetry and prose, and kept in close touch with the literary movement of their time. But they were even more fortunate in prosecuting their studies in Italy at the time when a movement for the regeneration of Italian literature through the medium of ancient Greek poetry was flourishing. The Italians, tired of French classicism, were at that moment turning to the genuine classic source. Homer, and especially the *Iliad*, was studied in the original by the best Italian poets, and was productive of much discussion.

Translators of the 'Iliad.'

The *Iliad* was translated by Cesarotti, and afterwards by Monti, in verses which were considered classical. But Foscolo, who knew Greek well, thought that he had a better right. In 1807 he published at Brescia a volume containing the three translations of the *Iliad*—his own, Cesarotti's and that of Monti, to whom he dedicated the book. " You confessed," he said to Monti, " that you completed the translation *senza grammatica greca.*" As a matter of fact, Foscolo knew that Monti had been assisted in his Greek by Moustoxides, a young and learned Greek from Corfu. When the latter quarrelled with Monti, he called him *traduttor del traduttor d'Omero.*

All this was a splendid lesson for Kalvos and Solomos. The poet judged was Homer, their Homer, and the book the *Iliad.* It followed that they should both attempt to translate it into Modern Greek, although both of them, quickly realizing the magnitude of the task, did not proceed beyond ten verses. But they had at least been taught the superiority of Greek poetry, and they acquired that national fanaticism which is indispensable to poets who are destined to be loved by a nation. The Greeks called them " great " before their work had time to be properly appreciated. It is true that both were enlightened and conscientious workers, that they had high and generous ideals, and that they contended with difficulties numerous in their time. And as they sang the achievements of a memory truly immortal, so will their name be also immortal.

Archaeology.

EXCAVATIONS IN THESSALY.

Dr. Arvanitopoulos has brought to a conclusion his excavation of the second tower of Pagassae, which, as was recorded in a former archæological note, was found to have been filled with rubbish containing a considerable number of interesting stele. The work of excavation has lasted about a year, and has brought to light about a hundred stele, of which the most important, because of the excellent preservation of their colouring, are the following : A stele of Aristoxydes of Keios, representing a warrior greeting a youth ; one of Klemene, daughter of Agathocles, depicting an altar on which rests a serpent. The third is that of Arga the Cretan, which bears a representation of three men, and has on the pediment a beautiful head of Medusa. Fourth, one of Lycoleon of Angea, portraying a feast of the dead. Another which has no inscription bears the representation of a female figure almost of life size. The stele of Paulos, son of Artemidorus, depicts an engraved anthemium. Then follow a beautiful bas-relief dedicated to the Journeying Hero, a stele of Demo, representing the Chthonous Hermes, and a great many others.

Mr. S. Xenopoulos has been despatched to the spot in order to secure reproductions of these monuments. Test excavations are also about to be undertaken by Dr. Arvanitopoulos in the capital of Perraivoi ; and he is also going to explore a Cave of the Nymph situated on the Kissavos mountain where many inscriptions and dedications relating to women were discovered last year.

THE PARTHENON.

Excavations of the greatest scientific interest have ately been made on the site of the Parthenon by the lAmerican School of Archæology at Athens, for the purpose of deciding between the rival theories of Mr. Hill, the Director of the American School, and Mr. Dörpfeld, of the German School, regarding the form of the older temple, the Hecatompedon, which occupied the site of the Parthenon at an earlier date. For this purpose the unpaved parts were excavated, and foundations were laid bare which defined clearly the outline of the ancient temple which existed at the time of the Persian invasion, and bore out the contention of Mr. Hill. During these excavations many tombs of the Byzantine period were brought to light in different parts of the site, some of them being vaulted. By these discoveries the American School has scored a second triumph, their first success being the restoration of the Erechtheon--an undertaking which was rendered possible of execution by the discovery of an inscription setting out the form of tender for the building and fixing precisely the size and shape of every stone in it.

THE ANCIENT BOULEUTERION.

Near the north-west face of the Acropolis, in the angle formed by the streets of the Beuleuterion, Metron, and Dioscuri, there is a spot known by the name of Archæon Beuleuterion. It has received this appellation from the discovery there of important inscriptions which suggested that they belonged in ancient times to the Bouleuterion. On this site excavations were conducted in 1853, with the result that a massive wall was discovered, constructed of materials taken from older buildings, upon which were a great number of sculptured inscriptions. Owing to the limited means now at the disposal of the Archæological Society of Athens, the excavations are being conducted on a rather small scale, but they have nevertheless brought to light many

important relics, prominent among them being the marble head of a youth, of the type called Ἀπόλλωνος τοῦ Ὀμφαλλοῦ. It dates from the fifth century, but is unfortunately not in a perfect 'stateof preservation. The semicircular retaining wall of immense stones which supports the soil of the Pnyx is commonly believed to have been constructed in the fifth century, when the whole of the site was laid out as an amphitheatre in which to hold the public meetings of the citizens of Athens. In order to determine the time of the construction of this wall, the Archæological Society has also undertaken a small excavation on the Pnyx. The soil banked up behind this wall ought to be cleared away and the ground of the Pnyx levelled, when the date of the Pnyx's construction would be fixed by the objects found upon it. After this the time of the wall's construction would be easily established.

In the excavations which have already been made in the embankment there were found fragments of vases bearing pictures of the fifth century B.C. as well as portions of vases coated with a black shining paint. There were also discovered some handles of earthenware jars bearing the stamp of the factories in which they had been made, and belonging to the fourth century B.C. Judging from these, the conclusion may be drawn that the retaining wall just mentioned could not be older than the fourth century B.C. But at a distance of about eight yards inward there has been discovered another retaining wall, which happens to be considerably older, and was covered with earth when the first was in course of construction. About this second retaining wall, which is built of smaller stones laid in courses, nothing was hitherto known. It may be possible to determine the time of its construction when the embankment behind it has been excavated.

ATHENS: THE ANCIENT AGORA.

During the recent excavations in the Agora undertaken by the Archæological Society there was found in an almost perfect state of preservation a portico consisting of two pillars of Pentelic marble three metres high, and of the στηθαῖον. In the soil excavated there was found the trunk of a very well executed marble statue representing a youth. It reminds one of the body of the Ephebos of Eleusis. There were also found some interesting bas-reliefs and portions of inscriptions. The excavations in the Agora will be continued throughout the winter.

Travellers' Impressions.

There are men who travel round the world. These individuals gather impressions during their travels. And as there exist in the world writing and printing, these men note down their impressions and print them.

Greece is one of those countries which specially attract these birds of passage, and as a journey to Greece imposes certain obligations, there never passes a year without one, two, or more books appearing containing impressions of Greece. These books, from the time of Chateaubriand's *Itinéraire*, have fired the blood of the Greeks in various ways. Avramiotis of Argos hastened to demonstrate in time that the author of the *Martyrs* and of *The Spirit of Christianity* did not see anything in Greece, did not study anything, and did not understand anything, but during the twenty days of his stay in the sacred land simply let his imagination work.

Now again with the book of Mr. Duckett Ferriman, the chroniclers of the Athenian papers are endeavouring to convince the world that the English tourist did exactly the same as Chateaubriand and all the intervening writers of impressions.

As you see, the centuries copy one another. Meanwhile the tourists travel and describe, and those who are described protest. This phenomenon is not observable in Greece alone. Chateaubriand was not more fortunate in his other journey, the *Voyage d'Amérique*. The American Bankford, like Avramiotis, discovered a multitude of errors, misconceptions and inexactitudes in the book of the famous traveller in America.

Pierre Loti was also soundly rated by the Japanese. A Russian officer assured me that one must not believe half of what Loti writes on the Chinese people.

I remember once hearing a conversation in Cetinje on the book of M. Vlachovitch, one of the most beautiful books ever written on Montenegro. Many prominent Montenegrins assured me with ironical smiles that I must not believe a word of that stupid novel.

After all this, I came to the conclusion that the only sentiment which is not justified after reading a travel book is anger at its inexactitudes. The tourists, from the time of Herodotus, have done nothing but write inexactitudes. One may even assert that the more beautiful the book is, the more inexactitudes it is sure to contain. The books which are most exact in their information about a country are the dullest and the ugliest. This is probably because they are devoid of every trace of imagination and creative power, while those books in which imagination abounds and reality is most trodden under foot are always charming and well worth reading.

During the twenty days of his stay in Greece, Chateaubriand, of course, could not acquire a thorough knowledge of Greece. The same has been the case with Mr. Duckett Ferriman. The man who stays ten years in a country ends without any impression about anything in that country. But the man who traverses the country in a few days sees wonders and writes poems. If what he writes is not the actual truth, it is often poetical truth; and if the things that he describes are not those which really happen, they are perhaps those which ought to happen. They are at any rate those which fascinate and convey really æsthetical impressions.

To the writer and the artist, the outside world is only a pretext for unveiling the inner world. What we admire in a book or a work of art is not the real world, which we all see, but the world of a soul which we desire to know. Let us therefore not be angry with the tourists who give us inexact books; we had better grow angry with those who give us ugly and dull ones, even when they retail the truth most conscientiously.

A French tourist, describing Russia, writes that "there is a beautiful breed of dogs which are called *sabaca*." This is just as if he said that in Greece there is a breed of dogs which are called σκυλιὰ (dogs). Nevertheless the impressions of this tourist are full of grace and poetical charm. Another man who knew Russian better might avoid this charming mistake and still write a horrible book.

I once happened to make the acquaintance of a foreigner who had come to Athens purposely to write a book on Greece. He held in his hand a note-book in which he was recording the great writers of the country.

"Who is your greatest poet?"

"Palamas," I answered.

He drew out his note-book. "Strange! I was told that the greatest poet is Mrs. L... But I quite believe you. I have been told the same by others . . ."

He produced his pencil, struck out Mrs. L...and put down M. Palamas.

Notwithstanding, this man wrote a very tasteless book, and one which I have the courage to designate as such, especially as I have been treated by the author most courteously and obligingly. But what does it matter? He might have written that the greatest poet of Greece is M...and his book still be unique and admirable.

Let us not forget after all that Herodotus is the most delightful writer and the king of tourists.

PAVLOS NIRVANAS.

Modern Greek Literature.

Η ΑΦΡΟΔΙΤΗ ΤΗΣ ΜΗΛΟΥ—THE APHRODITE OF MILO.

By A. MAVROUDIS.

In making these selections from Modern Greek literature, we have no intention, as we stated at the outset, of presenting specimens either of the works of the best writers or of the best works of each writer. Our aim is to place before our readers representative examples of the literature of Modern Greece which will enable them to cultivate an acquaintance with the Greek language of to-day in all its varying forms of expression.

We have selected upon the present occasion one of those chroniques *which during the last decade or so have become such a prominent feature of the Athenian Press. In their diction these* chroniques *afford an interesting illustration of that fusion of the colloquial and the purist forms of the Modern Greek tongue which bids fair to solve the problem of how to effect the approximation of the written with the spoken language. It is not too much to say that in their keenness of criticism and delicacy of touch these* chroniques *often rise to the level of true art.*

The author of the following selection, Mr. A. Mavroudis, is one of the most promising of the younger school of Greek journalists, and has already won an acknowledged place in the field of light literature.

The Aphrodite of Milo is placed in a special room in the Louvre. The other works of sculpture and painting, many of which represent the fruit of a genius like the Monna Lisa Joconda of Leonardo da Vinci, and the Belle Jardinière of Raphael, are arranged in different rooms—not at haphazard, of course, but methodically.

The Aphrodite of Milo dwells in a separate apartment of the Louvre. The marble goddess of beauty has been deemed worthy of living alone. On her pedestal,guarded on all sides by a chain suspended from four iron pillars, the most beautiful woman in the world receives with her divine smile the admiration of mankind.

In a glass case there is a hand grasping an apple, and some marble fragments, which are preserved there solely because it has been conjectured for a moment that they belonged to the mutilated statue of Aphrodite.

I happened to find myself in the room at different hours of the day. Aphrodite is always surrounded by visitors. Recently, on a grey afternoon, when the skies seemed determined not to turn blue again, I entered the Louvre. Around her, men of different nationalities and different stations gazed and studied the minutest details. If the chain did not prevent them they would jostle the statue.

A young man, poorly dressed but without long hair, with an expressive look and with a book in his hand, stands in a corner apart and in calm emotion communes with the Greek beauty. Four or five women—Americans, I suppose—cry out all together, "Oh dear, dear, she's a beauty!" A typical Parisian *élégant*, accompanied by a beautiful, vivacious, gay and gracefully dressed lady, declaims incessantly. Arm in arm, almost embracing, they go round about the statue and gaze upon it admiringly from various standpoints. Suddenly the lady whispers something in the ear of her cavalier, and the couple retire a few steps backward. The lady raises her dress slightly, and the young man, bending down, skilfully ties the dainty shoe. The lady has a neatly turned foot,and the cavalier seems to be both pleased and proud, while Aphrodite continues to smile. On a seat there is sleeping blissfully, and probably dreaming, a dead-tired tourist with his head downbent, his Baedeker in his hand, and the glasses before his eyes; and a Catholic priest newly shaved contemplates the statue with devout (!) attention. Saint Anthony, protect him, I earnestly implore you—and make haste! . . .

Men change with ease their forms of government, and with more difficulty their religion. But they will never free themselves from the thraldom of art. They will remain for ever slaves to it, as if fascinated by the charm of an entrancing woman. The world was hardly created when art inspired Adam with love for her. His descendants have been suffering the consequences ever

Ἡ Ἀφροδίτη τῆς Μήλου εἶνε τοποθετημένη εἰς ἰδιαιτέραν αἴθουσαν τοῦ Λούβρου. Τὰ λοιπὰ ἔργα γλυπτικῆς καὶ ζωγραφικῆς, μεταξὺ τῶν ὁποίων πολλὰ ἐκφράζουν τὴν ἀκμὴν μιᾶς μεγαλοφυΐας, ὅπως ἡ Μόνα-Λίζα Τζοκόντα τοῦ Λεονάρντο Ντὰ Βίντσι, ἡ "Belle Jardinière" τοῦ Ραφαήλου, εἶνε ἀραδιασμένα εἰς τὴς διάφορες σάλες, ὄχι στὴν τύχη βέβαια, ἀλλὰ τὸ ἕνα κοντὰ στὸ ἄλλο. Ἡ Ἀφροδίτη τῆς Μήλου κατοικεῖ στὸ Λοῦβρον ξεχωριστά, εἰς ἰδιαίτερον διαμέρισμα. Ἡ μαρμαρίνη θεὰ τοῦ κάλλους ἐθεωρήθη πρέπον νὰ ζήσῃ μοναχή. Ἐπάνω εἰς τὸ βάθρον της, προστατευομένη γύρω ἀπὸ μίαν ἁλυσσίδα ἑνώνουσαν τέσσαρα σιδερένια κάγκελλα, ἡ ὡραιοτέρα γυναῖκα τοῦ κόσμου δέχεται μὲ τὸ θεῖον χαμόγελό της τὸν θαυμασμὸν τῶν ἀνθρώπων.

Εἰς μίαν προθήκην ὑπάρχει ἕνα χέρι ποῦ κρατεῖ μῆλο, καὶ μερικὰ συντρίμματα μαρμάρου, φυλασσόμενα ἐκεῖ μόνον καὶ μόνον διότι ὑπετέθη πρὸς στιγμὴν ὅτι ἀνῆκον εἰς τὸ ἀκρωτηριασμένον ἄγαλμα τῆς Ἀφροδίτης.

Ἔτυχε νὰ εὑρεθῶ εἰς τὴν αἴθουσαν κατὰ διαφόρους ὥρας. Ἡ Ἀφροδίτη εἶνε πάντοτε τριγυρισμένη ἀπὸ ἐπισκέπτας.

Τελευταίως, ἕνα σταχτὶ ἀπόγευμα, ὅπου ὁ οὐρανὸς ἐφαίνετο ὁριστικῶς ἀποφασισμένος νὰ μὴ ξαναγείνῃ γαλανός, ἐμπῆκα στὸ Λοῦβρον. Ἡ θεὰ ἦτο στὴ θέσι της. Γύρω-γύρω ἄνθρωποι διαφόρων ἐθνῶν καὶ ποιοτήτων ἐκυττοῦσαν, ἐμελετοῦσαν τὰς ἐλαχίστας λεπτομερείας. Ἂν δὲν τοὺς ἠμπόδιζε ἡ ἁλυσσίδα, θὰ ἔπεφταν ἐπάνω στὸ ἄγαλμα.

Ἕνας νέος, φτωχικὰ ντυμένος, μὲ μαλλιὰ ὄχι μακρυά, μὲ βλέμμα ἐκφραστικὸν καὶ μ' ἕνα βιβλίο στὸ χέρι, στέκει ἀποτραβηγμένος σὲ μιὰ γωνιὰ καὶ καὶ ἐπικοινωνεῖ ἤρεμα συγκινημένος μὲ τὸ ἑλληνικὸν ὡραῖον. Τέσσαρες-πέντε Ἀμερικανίδες πιθανῶς, φωνάζουν ὅλες μαζῆ: — Oh dear dear! she is a beauty! Ἕνας τύπος κομψοῦ Παριζιάνου, μὲ μίαν εὔμορφη, ζωηρή, εὔθυμη καὶ ντυμένη μὲ χάρι κυρία ρητορεύει ἀδιακόπως. Πιασμένοι μπράτσο, ἀγκαλιασμένοι σχεδόν, φέρνουν βόλτα τὸ ἄγαλμα καὶ τὸ θαυμάζουν ἀπὸ διάφορα σημεῖα. Ἔξαφνα ἡ κυρία ψιθυρίζει κάτι στὸ αὐτὶ τοῦ καβαλλιέρου καὶ τὸ ζευγαράκι ἀποσύρεται ὀλίγα βήματα πίσω. Ἡ κυρία σηκώνει ἐλαφρὰ τὴ φούστα της καὶ ὁ νέος σκυμμένος ἀσχολεῖται νὰ δέσῃ τεχνικὰ τὸ φίνο παπουτσάκι. Ἔχει εὔγραμμον, τορνευτὸ πόδι ἡ κυρία, ὁ καβαλλιέρος φαίνεται εὐχαριστημένος καὶ ὑπερήφανος γι' αὐτό, καὶ ἡ Ἀφροδίτη ἐξακολουθεῖ νὰ χαμογελᾷ.

Σ' ἕνα καναπὲ κάποιος ἀφανισμένος ἀπὸ τὴν κούρασι περιηγητής, μὲ τὸ κεφάλι γυρμένο πρὸς τὰ

since. True, the Old Testament does not furnish such details but they are supplied to-day by science, which has discovered in the caves where the troglodytes used to live, paintings and sculpture of a naïve kind but which had passed from the primitive to an advanced stage.

Let the practical men of to-day say what they like, they aso love art. They go crazy for postcards in startling colours, for transfer-pictures, or for the adventurous tales of a yellow newspaper. They also feel the need of art. It is another matter if they cannot raise themselves to a higher level.

Blessed are those who are able to worship Aphrodite. They are rich, even if they have not a penny of a fortune. Theirs is the heavenly as well as the earthly Kingdom. The Aphrodite of Milo, in the temple which the Louvre has granted to her, has been glorified by faithful and unfaithful. Of course her place is elsewhere—in the golden light of Attica. The humidity here has somewhat sullied the peerless marble, and I fear that in time the goddess will suffer from rheumatism. But since there is now no longer any possibility of the statue travelling to Athens and taking up its quarters there, let us be consoled that Aphrodite is at least resting in the Louvre. Paris that captured her has a suggestion of Ancient Athens. *(Hestia).*

ἐμπρός, μὲ τὸν Μπαίντεκερ στὸ χέρι καὶ γυαλιὰ στὰ μάτια, κοιμᾶται μακαρίως, ἴσως ὀνειρεύεται. Κι' ἕνας φραγκόπαπας, ξυρισμένος τῆς ὥρας, περιεργάζεται τὸ ἄγαλμα μὲ προσοχὴν ἱεράν! Ἅγιε Ἀντώνιε, προστάτευσέ τον, σὲ παρακαλῶ θερμῶς! Ἀλλὰ σπεῦσε...

Οἱ ἄνθρωποι ἀλλάζουν εὔκολα πολίτευμα, δυσκολώτερα θρησκείαν. Ἀπὸ τὸν ζυγὸν τῆς Τέχνης δὲν θ' ἀπαλλαγοῦν ποτέ. Σ' αὐτὸν μένουν πάντοτε σκλάβοι, σᾶν ὑπνωτισμένοι ἀπὸ τὸ θέλγητρον παντοδυνάμου γυναικός. Μόλις ἐπλάσθη ὁ κόσμος ἡ Τέχνη ἔδωσε ἕνα φίλτρον εἰς τὸν Ἀδάμ. Ἔκτοτε οἱ ἀπόγονοι ὑφίστανται τὰς συνεπείας. Εἶνε ἀλήθεια πῶς ἡ Παλαιὰ Γραφὴ δὲν ἀναφέρει τοιαύτας λεπτομερείας. Τὰς προσθέτει ὅμως σήμερα ἡ Ἐπιστήμη, ἡ ὁποία μέσα εἰς τὰ σπήλαια ποῦ κατῴκησαν ἄλλοτε οἱ Τρωγλοδύται ἀνεῦρεν ἔργα ζωγραφικῆς καὶ γλυπτικῆς ἀφελοῦς μέν, τέχνης ὅμως ἡ ὁποία ἐπέρασεν ἀπὸ τὸ πρωτογενὲς ἕως τὴν ἀκμήν.

Ἂς λέγουν ὅ,τι θέλουν σήμερα οἱ πρακτικοὶ ἄνθρωποι. Καὶ αὐτοὶ ἀγαποῦν τὴν τέχνην. Τρελλαίνονται γιὰ μιὰ κάρτ ποστὰλ μὲ χρώματα χτυπητά, γιὰ μιὰ χαλκομανία, γιὰ τὸ περιπετειῶδες ἀνάγνωσμα κιτρίνης ἐφημερίδος. Καὶ αὐτοὶ ἔχουν ἀνάγκην τῆς Τέχνης. Ἂν δὲν μποροῦν νὰ ὑψωθοῦν εἰς ἐπίπεδα ἀνώτερα, αὐτὸ εἶνε ἄλλο ζήτημα.

Μακάριοι ἐκεῖνοι ποῦ εἶνε ἱκανοὶ νὰ λατρεύσουν τὴν Ἀφροδίτην. Αὐτοὶ εἶνε πλούσιοι, κι' ἂς μὴν ἔχουν μίαν πενταρα περιουσίαν· αὐτῶν ἐστὶ καὶ ἡ Βασιλεία τῶν Οὐρανῶν καὶ ἡ βασιλεία τῆς γῆς.

Ἡ Ἀφροδίτη τῆς Μήλου μέσα εἰς τὸν ναὸν ποῦ τῆς παρεχώρησε τὸ Λοῦβρον, ἐδοξολογήθη ἀπὸ πιστοὺς καὶ ἀπίστους.

Ἡ θέσις της βέβαια εἶνε ἀλλοῦ, μὲς τὸ χρυσὸ φῶς τῆς Ἀττικῆς. Ἡ ὑγρασία ἐδῶ ἐμαύρισε κάπως τὸ μοναδικὸν μάρμαρον καὶ φοβοῦμαι μήπως μὲ τὸν καιρὸ πάθη ἡ θεὰ ρευματισμούς. Ἀλλ' ἀφοῦ δὲν εἶνε δυνατὸν πλέον νὰ ταξειδεύσῃ τὸ ἄγαλμα μέχρις Ἀθηνῶν καὶ νὰ ἐγκατασταθῇ ἐκεῖ, ἂς παρηγορούμεθα τοὐλάχιστον ὅπου ἡ Ἀφροδίτη εὑρίσκεται στὸ Λοῦβρον. Τὸ Παρίσι, ποῦ τὴν αἰχμαλώτισεν, ἔχει κάτι ἀπὸ τὸ πνεῦμα τῶν ἀρχαίων Ἀθηνῶν.

REVIEWS.

"HOME LIFE IN HELLAS."*

This latest addition made by Mr. Duckett Ferriman to the books which have been written about Greece is certainly not one of the ordinary type. Besides steering clear of the beaten track followed by most of the writers of such works, the author has contrived to present a great deal of useful and reliable information in a setting which must appeal to the cultured reader.

The author has divided his work into ten chapters, each of which deals with some distinct phase of Greek life, history, or scenery. The subject of the first is the Greek Mainland, and here the author skilfully portrays the natural beauties of Greek landscape, besides enumerating the economic products of each district. Alluding to the elements that constitute the scenery of Greece, the author says: "There is no foreground in Attic and Ægean scenery. The elements of rock and water that compose it are rudimentary in their simplicity. There are no details to distract the eye. We gaze afar at the divine loveliness of land and sea and feel that it is good to have been born. Such an aspect of nature has some analogy with Greek art at its best, and it may be that such an environment inspired it." Mr. Duckett Ferriman's second chapter deals with the Isles, nearly all of which he has visited personally, and regarding which he presents an uncommon amount of interesting information. Owing to the defective means of communication available between the islands, this achievement is one not usually accomplished by authors.

Chapters III., IV. and V. deal with types and traits of the Greek people and their national characteristics and domestic life. In this connection it is interesting to note that the author regards the modern Greek as neither an Oriental nor an Eastern, but an amalgamation of the qualities of both races cast into an Hellenic mould. In the section devoted to the consideration of Greek characteristics the author refers to the curiosity of the people, and says: "The curiosity of the Greek knows no limits. He is not content with learning the nationality of the stranger, whence he comes, his age, his wife's age if he has one, the number and sex of his children, the price he has paid for his clothes, the nature, use and cost of any article in his possession which happens to attract attention. It is exceedingly annoying and to the Western gross impertinence. But it is not meant as such. It is in the manners of the people, and the Greek will freely volunteer information about himself, his relations, and his affairs."

Against this somewhat unfavourable estimate must be set the author's fine appreciation of many of the good qualities of the people among whom he sojourned, notably their open and generous hospitality and their proud and independent spirit. A typical example of native courtesy is thus described: "Here comes Aphrodite — not the Paphian goddess, but a Spartan maid who bears her name, a common one in Greece. She brings us a basket of wild strawberries culled from the mountain side—those small, long, deep crimson berries whose fragrance and flavour none of garden growth can approach. Take her gift, but do not offer her money. . . . We thank Aphrodite, who wishes us a safe journey and rejoins her friend Eufrosyne. Once more she waves her hand, and her last word is *Khairete*—Farewell."

Chapter VI. deals with faith and folklore in Hellas, and Chapters VII. and VIII. with education and public life. In the latter section the author states that education in Greece is as widely established as in most of the Western countries, and testifies to the thirst for knowledge typical of the Greek people. Dealing with the morality of the Greeks he points out that "crimes of violence are more numerous than any others; bud premeditated murder is so rare that it may be considered non-existent. Burglary is almost unknown, and in this respect, as well as in that of street robberies, the inhabitants of Athens enjoy far greater security than those of London, notwithstanding the incontestable superiority of our police organisation."

Chapter IX. deals with Greek literature and journalism; and Chapter X. with Athens. The author's estimate of Greek literature, although not quite complete, nevertheless conveys a fairly adequate impression to the reader of the position of letters in Greece. Journalism, he says, has made enormous progress in Greece, and the thirst of the people for newspaper-reading is so great that Athens, with a population of 170,000, possesses no fewer than thirteen daily newspapers.

In summing up his impressions Mr Ferriman says: "Want of balance has always marked opinions upon Greece. They have erred either on the side of unqualified praise or of wholesale condemnation. This was the case during the struggle for independence. That Greece still lived came as a revelation to the West. People were dazzled by the wonder of it, and carried away by enthusiasm, dreamed of a revival of the greatness of the past. Others based their judgment on their experience of a handful of Levantine traders, assigning to the whole nation the qualities of the latter. It needed the common-sense of a poet like Byron to take a saner view. The poet rightly insisted that time was

*"Home life in Hellas," by Z. Duckett Ferriman. London Mills & Boon. 8s.

needed for the Greeks to show what stuff they were made of when 'their limbs are a little less stiff from the shackles of four centuries.'"

In a limited review like the present all the interesting and attractive features of Mr. Ferriman's book cannot be dealt with. We hope to be able to refer to some of them in a future issue.

The book is beautifully printed and handsomely bound, and contains some fine illustrations. We heartily commend it to our readers.

The Position of Women in Greece.

Miss Eugénie Zographou of Athens, who is a well-known journalist and the author of many novels and plays, contributed in an agreeable manner to the promotion of social intercourse between the members of the usually quiet and reserved Greek Colony in London by giving them on the 6th of November a most interesting lecture on the position of women in Greece. The address was delivered at the rooms of the Greek Legation, kindly let for this purpose by his Excellency the Greek Minister and Mrs. Gennadius.

The lecturer, after being complimented by the Minister upon her useful work of visiting the different countries where Greeks live, studying the conditions prevailing there, and trying to inspire her compatriots with a love for the mother-country, proceeded to explain her subject in an undemonstrative but lucid and pleasing style.

By way of introduction the lecturer recounted the impressions she had received from visits paid to European Turkey and to Jerusalem, where the Greeks are the pioneers of civilization and the most active and prosperous element, and also to Cyprus and Egypt, where they work veritable miracles of progress and perform notable achievements in all branches of lfie. Miss Zographou said she was very pleased to notice that the Greeks in those countries not only strove to improve their own position but had constantly at heart the greatness of the Fatherland and the furtherance of the national aims, for which many of them are making great sacrifices.

Coming to the position of the Greek women of to-day, Miss Zographou said that although, owing to the lesser development of industries in Greece than in Western countries, most of the Greek women are still devoting their attention to domestic occupations, there is an important section, steadily growing, which aspires to share in practically every branch of life, and has already attained a prominent position in the field of productive work. These are the factory women, the sericulturists (who, thanks to the School of Sericulture at Athens maintained by a committee of distinguished ladies of Athenian society, are constantly increasing in number), the shopgirls, typists, telephonists, etc. Philanthropy is another field in which women of the higher society are doing most useful work. Thanks chiefly to their energies and the patronage of her Majesty the Queen of Greece and the Crown Princess, Athens and many of the provincial towns are provided with excellent hospitals and other philanthropic institutions. Miss Zographou said she was glad to state that a good part of the voluntary contributions towards the maintenance of these charitable undertakings comes from the ladies of the Greek community in London.

But it is in intellectual occupations that the Greek women have made greatest progress, and in these there are many who have distinguished themselves in art, literature and science. Some of the Greek women painters not only compete honourably with their male colleagues, but have made themselves known beyond the boundaries of Greece, having many times exhibited works and gained awards in the greatest artistic centres of the West. Those who entered the University, the doors of which are wide open to women, have occupied most prominent positions in the sciences they followed, two female doctors of medicine having been appointed Privatdozent in the Medical School and having every prospect of being soon appointed professors, the Council of State, whose opinion was asked by the Greek Government lately, having declared themselves in favour of absolute freedom to women to occupy the highest academical posts if they possessed the proper qualifications. Thus Greece will be among the first of the countries to grant this deserving tribute to women.

Miss Zographou, after enumerating the different branches of feminine activity in Greece and the creditable progress made therein during the last twenty-five years, said that the Greek women must devote a great part of their time and labours to the proper education of their children in a national spirit, as the Greek nation, having still nearly two-thirds of its people under the foreign yoke, needs to have its younger generation trained to self-abnegation and endurance to hardship in order toe ffect the difficult task of unitingtogether the scattered Hellenes.

At the conclusion of her address Miss Zographou was warmly congratulated by the influential gathering, amongst whom were to be noted the Greek Consul,General and Mrs. Stavridi, the Great Archimandrite, C. Pagonis, the Archimandrite Moschovakis, Mr. G. Marcheti, who in an eloquent speech thanked the lecturer on behalf of the Greek community, Lieut. Vlassis, Mr. E. Hatzioannou, Member of the Legislative Council of Cyprus, Mr. Stavrynides, editor of our Cypriote contemporary *Eleutheria*, Mr. and Mrs. Eumorphopoulo, Mrs. Argenti, Mrs. Mavrogordato, Mrs. and Miss Agelasto, Miss Zifo, Miss Metaxa, Mr. and Mrs. Messinezi, Mrs. A. Embiricos, Mr. and Mrs. Sheridan, Mr. and Mrs. Craies, Mr. and Miss Papadachi, Mr. G. Cottara, Mr. Lambelet, Mr. Kessary, Mr. L. Palamas, Mr. Costis, Mr. D. Zographos, Mr. Palmas, Mr. Symeonides, and many others.

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EPOSITS RECEIVED AND CURRENT ACCOUNTS OPENED ON FAVORABLE TERMS.

The Stability of Greek Finance.

On the 10th of November the Greek Government placed upon the financial markets of Paris and London a loan of £1,588,000, in five per cent. five-year bonds, redeemable at any time at three months' notice. The favour with which this loan was received by the public augurs well for the success of the £6,000,000 loan which the Greek Government intends shortly to place upon the market, and testifies that the improvement already effected in the situation in Greece, with the hope of still further betterment in the near future, has inspired European financial cfrcles with confidence in Greek finance.

In the columns of our able financial contemporary, the *Metochos*, of Athens, there was recently published an informing article upon the subject of the steady increase of the revenues at the disposal of the International Commission for the service of the foreign loans. The returns for the nine months which ended September 1910 exhibit an increase of surplus of 1,118,744 francs, or 124,000 francs per month. The following table enumerates the various revenues assigned to the service of these loans, and shows by comparison the increase in these for nine months of the present year as compared with the same months of 1909.

ACTUAL.	1910. fr.	1909. fr.	Increase in 1910. fr.
Salt	2,183,911.15	2,035,593.95	148,317.20
Petroleum .	3,305,475.	3,277,950.	27,525.
Matches ..	1,446,551.40	1,431,092.95	15,458.45
Playing cards	268,690.50	230,536.90	38,153.60
Stamps....	8,524,910.	8,349,830.	175,080.
Naxos emery	1,133,448.25	704,056.85	429,391.40
Guaranteed by law.			
Tobacco ..	5,619,000.	5,374,200.	244,800.
Cigarette paper ..	2,244,000.	2,203,980.70	40,019.30

The estimated total increase of surplus for the year ending December 1910 is 1,400,000 francs. After satisfying all claims there will remain an estimated net surplus of 570,400 francs. In the twelve years from 1898, when the International Commission for the control of the foreign loans was established, the amount of the interest paid upon these loans has been doubled.

The light which the above figures shed upon Greek finance shows that the status of the Kingdom in its financial aspect cannot be regarded as otherwise than eminently satisfactory.

TURKO-GREEK RELATIONS.

THE SUPPOSED RAPPROCHEMENT.

Nothing is known here of the supposed *rapprochement* with Turkey which has been repeatedly announced in telegrams from Vienna and Constantinople. Before the departure from Constantinople of M. Gryparis, who is much esteemed in the Turkish capital, he was made the recipient of many admirable expressions, and soothing words were also addressed to the Patriarch, but these amenities possess little real value while unaccompanied by any practical demonstration of good will. They are not regarded as already spontaneous, since it is well known that a certain Great Power for months past has been advising Turkey to conciliate Greece if only as a counterpoise to be used against Slavonic influence in Macedonia. There is certainly no desire here to facilitate a revival of the .Hamidian policy of fostering internecine war between the Christian races of Turkey, and even the reappearance of the Bulgarian bands in Macedonia is regarded with equanimity as the inevitable consequence of the responsive measures adopted by the authorities.

THE ANTI-GREEK BOYCOTT.

The fact that the boycotting of Greek commerce is being carried out with increased rigour is regarded as diminishing the value of the Turkish professions. Enormous losses have resulted to Greeks outside as well as within the Turkish Empire, and some steamship companies at the Piræus have been compelled to ask for subventions from the Government. Considerable injury has also been done to the commerce of other nations, and much inconvenience has been caused to travellers. Communication between the Piræus and Salonika is now limited to one steamer a week, and the postal service is much impeded.

In view of the correct attitude consistently maintained by Greece in regard to the Cretan question this punitive measure seems altogether unjustifiable. It appears in some cases not only to have been connived at but enforced by the authorities. It is stated that Kerim Aga, president of the Guild of Quay Porters at Salonika, recently issued an edict putting an end to the boycott, but withdrew it in deference to "public opinion."—*The Times Correspondent in the Balkans, Athens, 6 November.*

THE AGGRECIVE POLICY OF THE TURKS.

The only uncertainty about the foreign policy of the Young Turks is whether it is with Greece or Bulgaria that they mean to quarrel first, or whether they would elect to quarrel with them both at once. M. Venizelos, a Cretan by birth, but a Hellenic subject of long standing, has been summoned this week by King George to form a Ministry, a task which he has successfully accomplished. He is a strong and able man (we write from personal knowledge that goes back some ten years), cultured, thoughtful, and singularly free, as Cretans often are, from the typical faults of Greek party politicians. His defects are not impulsiveness, or a weak deference to the mood of the coffee-house. The Young Turks, however, have chosen to make his well-deserved elevation to the head of the Greek Government an excuse for a definite rupture of diplomatic relations.

Such is the announcement of the semi-official *Tanin*, which states that the Turkish Minister in Athens has been given indefinite leave, and compares M. Venizelos to a military "deserter." It is unworthy of a soldierly race to talk in this strain of one of the leaders of the successful Cretan insurrection, who won his liberty on the field of honour. Germany would have better reason to complain of the inclusion of an Alsatian in a French Ministry.

Corroboration continues to arrive regarding the brutal methods adopted by the Young Turks to disarm the non-Turkish peasantry in Macedonia. Greeks and Albanians have suffered, but the brunt of the oppression has fallen on the Bulgarians. We referred last week to the wholesale floggings at Istip, and in the villages round Uskub. Further details speak of the use of the bastinado—which was, by the way, officially abolished when the reign of liberty began. Nor is the brief brutality of the soldiers the end. The peasants, limping on their swollen and lacerated feet, are forced along the roads, and then imprisoned, with no formal charge to answer, to await the sentence of a Court-Martial. A letter which has reached us from a reliable private source even describes the use of ropes passed round a man's forehead or chest, and then twisted tight, as a method of dragging from him the secret of the hiding-place of the arms which, on no evidence at all, he is supposed to possess. This common prosecution has brought Greeks and Bulgarians together in close sympathy for the first time in their history since Bulgaria was a nation.—*The Nation*, October 22, 1910.

THE GREEKS AND THEIR IDEAL.

The Greeks have often been misjudged and misrepresented either by disillusioned Philhellenes who expected to find the superhuman virtues of Plutarch's

heroes in every elector to the modern *Boule*, or by superficial persons who summed up the whole nation with a hasty generalisation from some Levantine trader, nine times out of ten not a real Greek at all. Greece has everything to gain by being compared not with ideal standards but with the everyday types of modern life. It will then be found that, if fairly tried, the Greeks will emerge as the most intelligent, the most progressive, and certainly by far the most hospitable of the races in the Near East. . . . Greece has incurred many of her liabilities owing to the unnatural curtailment of her frontiers—the reason for which Leopold I. of Saxe-Coburg refused the Greek Crown in 1830—and the consequent burden of supporting thousands of Cretan and Thessalian refugees. We British, who, if we are Imperialists, believe in the closer union of the British Empire, should be the last to sneer at the Greeks because they cherish the ideal of a Great Greece. After all, it is not every nation which in these days has ideals, yet neither nation nor individual ever achieved much without them. Nor should we forget, as the author remarks, that Greece almost alone supported us during the Boer War. . . . It is far too much the fashion to regard Greece as a quarry for the classical archæologist. She should appeal to a far wider circle—to all who love "the countless laugh of the waves" and the deep blue of the Greek skies; to all who cherish the strange romance of feudalism in a classic setting; to all who sympathise with a nation which has preserved, as no other, its identity and its language across the centuries and is now striving to work out its reorganization—the essential of success in achieving its future mission.

W. MILLER in the *Morning Post*.

Tne Anglican and Eastern Orthodox Churches Union.

The annual meeting of the above Union was held on the 12th of October at Sion College, Victoria Embankment. In the absence of the President, the Bishop of Gibraltar, owing to illness, the Chair was taken by the Treasurer, the Rev. W. Wakeford. The meeting was largely attended by members of both Churches, a special feature being the presence of the Protopresbyter Constantine Callinichos, of the Manchester Greek Church, who delivered an eloquent and inspiring address, exhorting all the members of the Union to work for the great cause of ecclesiastical peace. "We must," he said, "help by every means in our power this Union to multiply its members and become a strong instrument in the hands of God. And we must help now. The Anglican Church wants more uniformity in faith, more attractiveness in worship, more impregnable defence in the validity of her Orders. On the other hand the great Church of Constantinople, the spiritual Mother of all the Orthodox Countries, is passing through a great crisis. The nationalist movement in Turkey, having kindled the Mohammedans' fanaticism and having produced amongst them a missionary spirit, threatens to drown Christianity in the Near East. Shall the Crescent overcome and assimilate the Cross? My belief is firm in the final triumph of the Cross. And for such a result the Orthodox Church, which is by place and historic conditions Oriental, must strengthen her position, joining hands with Anglicanism, which is so near to her."

Professor Lampakis, of Athens, who was to have specially attended the meeting, was unfortunately unable to be present, but sent a written address laying before the members his views as to the best means of effecting the union of the Anglican and Eastern Orthodox Churches. The General Secretary, the Rev. Fynes-Clinton, presented a statement detailing the work preformed during the year and also the increase of membership on both sides, the total number of members being now about 600, including many bishops and eminent clergymen of both Churches, as well as professors and other distinguished laymen.

As was pointed out in these columns upon another occasion, the purpose for which the Union has been formed is the cultivation of mutual knowledge and sympathy between the members of the two Churches, and the consideration of the means whereby their union may one day be effected.

As we are convinced that a good understanding between the two Churches, besides being a thing desirable in itself, will also aid powerfully in promoting a spirit of friendship between the nations represented, we hope that Greeks and members of the Church of England will assist the good cause by becoming members and taking a share in the work of the Union. Particulars as to membership and all other information can be obtained on application to the General Secretary, the Rev Fynes-Clinton, 77, The Pavement, Lewisham, London.

A SCHOOL FOR CLERGYMEN IN KAISSARIA.

The host of national benefactors, who are the glory of Modern Greece, is not confined to the Kingdom alone, but extends to *Graecia Irredenta* as well. We understand that those good patriots, the brothers Dermendzoglou, who occupy a prominent position in the Greek colony at Dresden, have provided their native place, Kaissaria in Asia Minor, with a seminary for the education and training of candidates for the priesthood. This addition to the educational facilities of the district will no doubt be greatly valued, and should have the effect of bringing a number of highly trained and educated men into the service of the Church.

THE "GREEK REVIEW."

The 36th number of our Athenian monthly contemporary the *Greek Review*, ably edited by Miss Eugenie Zographou, contains as usual most interesting and instructive items amongst which we quote the following:—

Ἐντυπώσεις ἀπὸ τὴν Αἴγυπτον.

Διαπρεπεῖς Ἑλληνίδες κατὰ τὸν 19ον Αἰῶνα.

Σύνδεσμος προστασίας τῶν Ἑλληνίδων, ἐν Αἰγύπτῳ.

Σοσιαλισμός.

Ἐπόθησα τὴν γυναῖκα.

Ἀπὸ Ἱεροσσόλυμα εἰς Ἰορδάνην.

Αἱ Ὄρνιθες τοῦ Ἀριστοφάνους καὶ ὁ Chanteclair.

Ὁ Ἀποκόρωνας.

Ἡ κρίσις ἐπὶ τοῦ Ἀβερωφείου Δραματικοῦ Διαγωνισμοῦ τοῦ Ὠδείου.

ΠΑΝΑΘΗΝΑΙΑ

Τοῦ ἀρίστου τούτου δεκαπενθημέρου εἰκονογραφημένου περιοδικοῦ ἐξεδόθη τὸ 243 τεῦχος τῆς 15ης Νοεμβρίου. Περιεχόμενα:

ΜΑΡΙΟΥ ΑΡΥ ΛΕΜΠΛΟΝ.—Σεγκατίνι.

ΠΟΛΥΒΙΟΥ ΔΗΜΗΤΡΑΚΟΠΟΛΟΥ.—Ἀριστοφάνους «Νεφέλαι», ἀπὸ τὴν ἀνέκδοτον μετάφρασίν του.

ΘΕΟΔΩΡΟΥ Δ. ΚΛΗΡΟΝΟΜΟΥ—Τὸ Παληοχώρι, παράδοσις.

MARGUERITE HANKES-DRIELSMA DE KRABBE.—Τὸ Λεοντάρι, διήγημα.

ΕΜΕΡΣΟΝ.—Κύκλοι, μεταφραστὴς Θ. Χ. Φλωρᾶς.

ΠΑΥΛΟΥ ΝΙΡΒΑΝΑ.—Ὁμιλίες μὲ τὸν ἑαυτόμου, συνέχεια.

ΔΗΜΟΣΘ. ΔΗΜΑΚΟΠΟΥΛΟΥ.—Ρυθμοί, στίχοι.

ΛΕΟΝΤΟΣ ΤΟΛΣΤΟΙ.—Πρόλογος τῶν Ἀπομνημονευμάτων μου.

ΚΑΡΟΛΟΥ ΝΤΗΛ.—Αἱ μυθιστορικαὶ περιπέτειαι τοῦ Ἀνδρονίκου Κομνηνοῦ, τέλος.

Ἡ ζωὴ τοῦ Δεκαπενθημέρου, διάφοροι καλλιτεχνικαὶ εἰκόνες καὶ ἐπίκαιροι. Γελοιογραφία.

ΕΓΓΡΑΦΑΙ: Δι' ἔν ἔτος δρ.—φρ. 25.—Δι' ἓξ μῆνας δρ.—φρ. 12,50.

ΚΑΤΑ ΔΟΣΕΙΣ δρ.—φρ. 2 κατὰ μῆνα. Ἡ πρώτη δόσις δρ.—φρ. 3.

Αἱ ἐγγραφαὶ ἀρχίζουν τὴν 15 ἑκάστου μηνὸς καὶ προπληρόνονται.

Ἀθῆναι, ὁδὸς Ἀριστοτέλους, 35.

"THE CRY OF CRETE."

Through verdant forests and pastures green,
Amid scenes that enchant the eye
Where peace and love should reign supreme
Is heard a heartrending cry
'Tis the cry of Crete.

'Neath the tyrants yoke she long has groaned
For homes made desolate and bare
Her sons oft slain, her daughters wronged
Lamentation and grief seem her share.
Oh! the sad cry of Crete.

Crete like a beauteous maiden stands
Her arms outstretched as it for aid
The cruel foe has spoiled her lands
Her honor in the dust has laid
And her grief finds vent in that
Cry of Crete.

Candia! thou land of my birth,
Must I witness thy sufferings still.
While those who spoil thee indulge in mirth
And their cup of rude pleasures refill
Whilst they wring from thee that
Cry of Crete.

Oh Britain! home of the free and the brave
Ne'er did thy sons such tyranny know
Thou hast nobly fought for the oppressed and the slave
Wilt thou not aid Crete now,
Wilt thou not heed that
Cry of Crete.

But lo! on this scene of sorrow and woe
Comes a noble band for their brothers to fight
'Tis the mother country who faces the foe
(She too has suffered a long dark night)
In response to that
Cry of Crete.

Mdlle Bratzali.

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of the

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In reply to repeated inquiries, we beg to inform new subscribers and others, that we have still in stock a limited number of previous issues of the HELLENIC HERALD. We take this opportunity of observing that these previous issues contain a reliable and fully documented account, not otherwise obtainable in concise form, of the recent history of the Near East. They contain moreover numerous valuable and interesting papers by distinguished authorities (both English and Foreign) on the historical, literary and social affairs of the Near East, and particularly of Greece.

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National Bank of Greece.

ASSETS, 31st May, 1910.	31st May., 1910. * Drachmae.		30th April, 1910. * Drachmae.	
Funds { Cash	4,110,163	08	4,672,411	27
Funds { Ionian Bank, Bonds	587,585	—	444,290	—
Funds { Ditto, of one and two Drachmae	682,938	—	570,082	—
In Foreign Banks { Gold	42,827,483	15	39,418,788	30
In Foreign Banks { Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	66,474	40	66,834	40
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,000,000	—	9,000,000	—
National Loan Bonds { in gold Dr. 27,971,808.25; in paper „ 33,339,670.30	61,311,478	55	61,911,510	90
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	4,141,000	—	5,160,800	82
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	20,217,486	72	5,160,800	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	3,533,012	95	19,690,518	82
Bills	19,597,366,	72	3,540,100	91
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,248,222	20	19,331,970	23
Advances on Securities	68,952,858	70	4,298,300	50
Advances on Merchandise	47,880,930	10	68,988,095	05
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	13,601,012	41	47,854,841	70
Loans to Communities, Harbours and other legal bodies	5,264,748	83	13,249,578	31
Maturing Loans to Communities, Harbour, etc.	7,417,358	90	5,345,097	32
*Agricultural Drafts	1,250,000	—	7,456,658	90
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	292,332	95	1,250,000	—
Shares in Local Companies	9,138,138	11		
Participation in the Bank of Crete	3,504,520	80	398,872	95
Bonds { Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece } Bank Bonds at 2½%	1,407,644	81	9,220,083 3,501,877	82 89
Sundry Coupons	544,677	92	1,396,532	16
Bank and Premises	1,003,520	—	886,127	58
*Doubtful Debts	480,000	—	1,003,520	—
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,279,405	39	480,000	—
Sundry Accounts			1,094,750	—
Sundry Foreign Acconnts				
Redemption of State Participation in the profits of the Bank				
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank				
Commission for the Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in in Bank Bonds				
Sundries				
Dr	393,449,025	01	392,013,249	16

LIABILITIES.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank „ 49,864,432.45	111,643,007	87	112,768,709	40
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,000,000	—	9,000,00	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	3,820,063	28	3,206,277	55
Deposits without Interest	24,597,060	62	21,504,338	65
Demand Notes	988,662	80	907,403	—
Unclaimed Dividends	215,950	—	226,350	—
Dividends of the last two quarters of 1909	7,639,498	40	7,223,731	56
International Financial Control { A/c of payment of Revenues affected } Gold Dr. 614,304.60; Notes „ 7,005,193.80	710,505	90	746,125 264,071	— 75
Service of the State Loans—Gold	242,161	10	215,431	16
Ditto, in Bank Notes			3,052	19
Service of different loans in Bank notes	48,483	75	66,834	40
State Deposits, Gold	1,505,052	19	110,351	86
State Deposits, Bank Notes	66,474	40	117,580,987	61
State Deposits { For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway } Gold Notes	66,170	85	39,856,410 20,242,900	— —
State Deposits (bequeth of Syngros)	117,487,904	22	4,535,458	—
Deposits at Interest	39,856,410	—	403,952	50
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%			15,002,271	44
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes, at 2½%	20,242,090	—	2,437,610	57
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	3,412,030	—		
Ditto., Bank Notes at 2½%	372,202	50		
Savings Bank	15,149,536	61		
Bills to be paid	2,208,191	83		
Interest of mortgage loans	5,750,758	68		
Interest of simple loans				
Sundries				
Dr.	393,449,025	01	392,013,249	16

*At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachmae is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant.
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

ATHENS, *May*, 1910.

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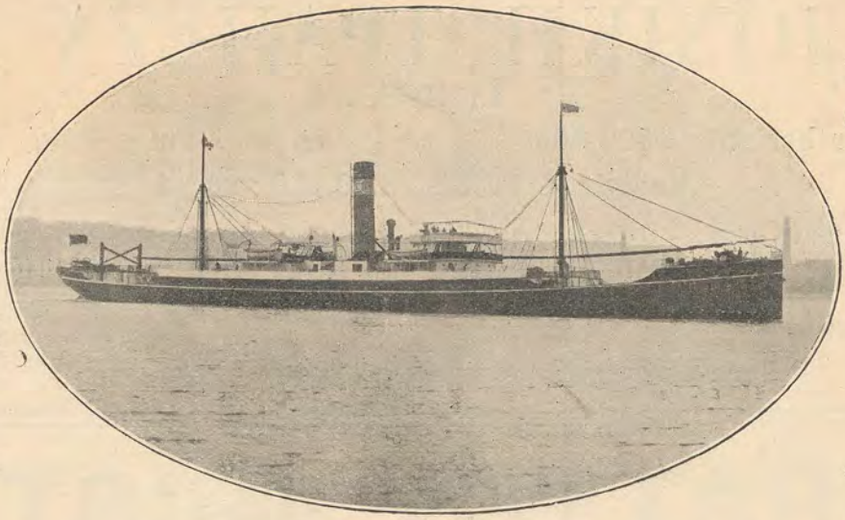

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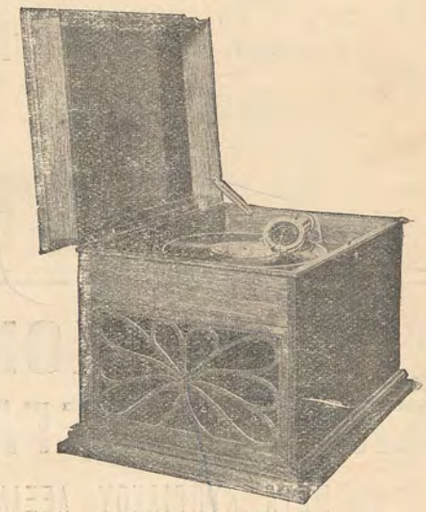

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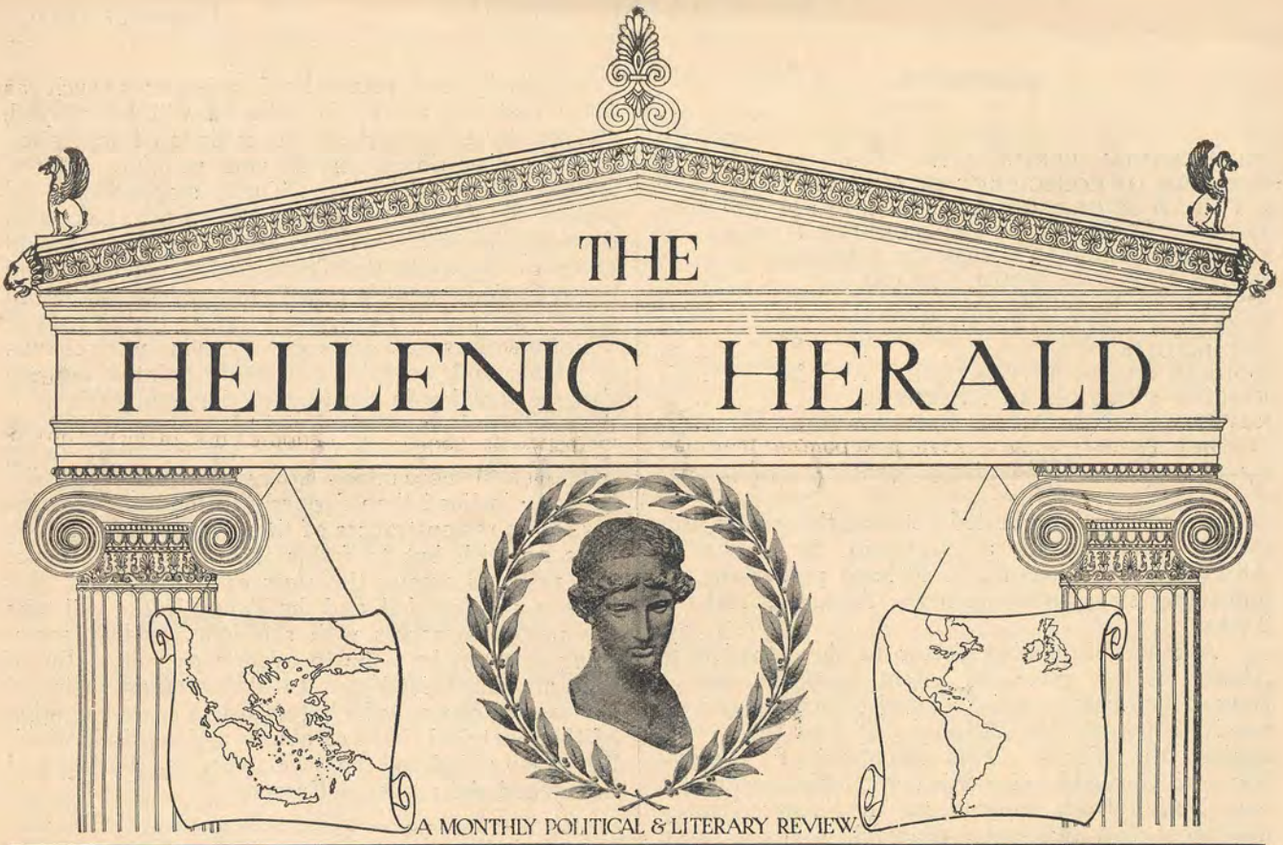

VOL. V., No. 50. FEBRUARY, 1911. [Price 10/- per Annum Post Free.

THE ALBANIAN PERIL.

THE most disquieting features in the Near Eastern situation, at the present moment, are the preparations which are being made in Albania for a renewal of hostilities in the spring. These are being organised upon a scale which, if it affords any indication of the purposes of those responsible for them, promises to bring about something like a conflagration in the Balkans. That plenty of highly inflammable material exists on the spot there is no manner of doubt. The very unsatisfactory condition of Macedonia, besides producing a hostile attitude towards the Government among the Christians in that province, occasions much unrest among the neighbouring States, notably Bulgaria and Greece. This discontent has been augmented of late by a large number of unfortunate incidents which have occurred on the frontiers of both Bulgaria and of Greece.

A movement of a still more menacing character is the insurrection among the tribes in Arabia. This revolt appears at present to be declining in strength. The situation, however, is still full of dangerous possibilities, and if carelessly handled—especially should news of the unrest in other quarters circulate among the revolting Arabs—may easily develop into a highly perilous one.

The discontent in Albania first assumed an aspect of importance during last autumn. The imposition of fresh taxation and the barbarous manner in which the disarmament law was applied produced at that time a widespread feeling of discontent, especially among the Northern Albanians, which developed into open resistance. An army of 50,000 soldiers, which was immediately drafted into the disturbed districts, quelled with some difficulty the open manifestations of discontent, but no effort whatever was made to deal with the underlying causes of the revolt. A spirit of bitterness towards the Government has in consequence been generated among the Albanians which was undreamt of before. The custom of wiping out insult or injury by an act of vengeance is a traditional one in Albania, and the spirit of revenge has prompted the people to prepare for a new struggle with the Government upon a more extensive scale than before.

An unfortunate incident which happened in the Turkish Parliament about this time served to deepen greatly the feeling of injury cherished by the Albanians. Ismail Kemal Bey, the well-known Albanian leader, criticising the dealings of some of the Young Turk leaders in connection with the Bagdad railway, threw out a suggestion that some of them had derived pecuniary benefits from the railway negotiations. This evoked a good deal of resentment in the Chamber, and the Grand Vizier rushed towards Kemal Bey in a threatening attitude. He did not strike the speaker, however, and the incident might have passed off without further trouble had not Dervish Bey, a friend of the Grand Vizier, come behind Kemal Bey and struck him a blow upon the head. Immediately the other Albanian deputies rushed forward to defend their colleague, and a fierce uproar took place in the Chamber, which was only quelled by the coolness and self-possession of Kemal Bey himself.

Although explanations were afterwards made

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and a reconciliation effected between the parties, this incident has created a profound impression in Albania, and helped not a little to precipitate the impending struggle between the Albanians and the Turks.

Another disquieting factor in the situation in Albania is the rumoured intention of the son of General Garibaldi to raise a band of volunteers with which to proceed to Albania and lead the people against the Turks. This intention of General Ricciotti Garibaldi, if carried into effect, will not only lend a fresh impetus to the insurrectionary movement and make its peaceful solution more difficult, but may give rise to international complications which will have a far-reaching result. All these considerations make it imperative that Turkey should seriously and at once consider the best means of dealing tactfully with the situation. The Great Powers, also, should endeavour to persuade the parties concerned to come to an agreement, by making mutual concessions, before international complications arise to endanger the peace of Europe.

It is said that the Turkish Government has some intention of conciliating the Albanians, and that arrangements are being made for the Sultan to visit the country at an early date. Although this may produce some softening effect upon the Albanians, it is doubtful whether it will fulfil the purpose it is intended to serve. The grievances of the Albanians are too deep-seated to be removed by mere verbal expressions of goodwill, and the memory of the excesses of the Young Turk governor, Djevad Bey, who dispersed meetings with artillery and burnt whole towns on the mere suspicion of their having harboured rebels, cannot be obliterated by mere spectacular display.

The Albanian unrest will only be calmed when the grievances which underlie it have been removed. These are sufficiently well known not to require much elaboration, but an enumeration of some of the principal may not be out of place. There is, first of all, the imposition of additional taxation, which the Albanians declare is intended chiefly for military purposes, and, consequently, for their own repression. Then there are the systematic endeavours of the Young Turks to stamp out the Albanian language by discouraging and even prohibiting its use in the schools of Albania, both public establishments and those maintained by private funds. Again, the Albanians ask that even-handed justice shall be administered in the law-courts, a demand that should not require to be formulated in a constitutional country; and they also require much more widely extended powers of self-government. The urgent need of this latter reform will be apparent when it is mentioned that of all the money contributed in taxation by the Albanians since the inauguration of the new *régime* not a penny has been devoted to the construction of public works in Albania.

It is by the removal of grievances such as these that the unrest in Albania will be allayed, and not by harsh and brutal methods of repression or by closing down schools and printing presses. Indeed, since the Young Turks stopped all the presses in Albania the spirit of revolt has been distinctly intensified. What the Young Turks should do is to lay aside their policy of Chauvinism and centralisation, and proceed to govern more in accordance with the expressed desires of the people. This course has been advocated by us in these columns all along, and we have repeatedly pointed out the dangers that lay in the way of the Young Turks if they adhered to their original course of policy. These prognostications are now, unfortunately, being fulfilled, and the Turkish Government may therefore be more inclined than formerly to lend an attentive ear to the remonstrances of those who, like ourselves, have no wish but to foster the blessings of peace and progress among the races of Turkey. If this hope is well-founded, and the Young Turks will take the proper measures with sufficient rapidity, something may yet be done to avert a calamity. But if they are determined not to depart from their old courses we can only look forward to a prolongation of that wretched chaos of abuses and reprisals which has so long hindered the development of Turkey and threatened the peace of Europe.

FREEDOM OF CONSCIENCE IN TURKEY.

Amid the chaos of blunders and worse that characterises the new régime in Turkey there appear one or two bright spots to which we are glad to direct public attention. One of these is the tardy recognition by the Government of a body of Christians who have for centuries been unable openly to declare their religious belief. These Christians are the Stavriotes, who inhabit the region of Ak-dag, on the borders of the Black Sea. By persecution, renewed again and again, they had been constrained to profess themselves Mohammedans, in public at least, and, although many efforts were made, through the medium of the Œcumenical Patriarch, to persuade the Turkish Government to grant the Stavriotes freedom of conscience, their petitions were always refused. All this time the Stavriotes clung tenaciously to their old faith. Although compelled to bear Mohammedan names, they remained believers in Christ, and, while forced to attend the mosque publicly, they continued to celebrate the Christian rites secretly in underground chambers.

In several parts of the Turkish Empire similar instances of Christians being compelled to appear publicly as Mohammedans have existed for a long time. The first of these bodies to receive recognition from the Turkish Government were certain inhabitants of the Sporades Islands, about the year 1828. The next recognition took place in 1857, when a portion of the inhabitants of Chaldia, Kromne, and Matzouka were allowed to profess their true religious beliefs. Ten years afterwards those living in the island of Ko were permitted by a liberal-minded governor to follow their religious convictions without the Government being asked to intervene at all. And now the Stavriotes, who are the last to be accorded their religious freedom, have been permitted to worship according to their consciences.

By this act of tardy justice the Young Turks have not only gone a long way to conciliate Christian opinion within the Turkish Empire, but to induce

the Christian nations of the world to regard their administration with more benevolence than hitherto. The benefits which the Young Turks have conferred upon a single section of the population of Turkey will therefore return to themselves with interest. Though it is after all but an act of bare justice, and merely consonant with the enlightened principles of the twentieth century, to allow freedom of conscience to the inhabitants of a constitutional country, yet reforms have always come so tardily in the Turkish Empire that we hail the new departure with the greater satisfaction in that it was quite unexpected. We hope that this spirit will continue to be evinced by the present rulers of Turkey, not only in the interests of the sufferers, but in the interests of the Turks themselves, as well as on the broader grounds of humanity and civilisation.

A FRIEND OF GREECE.

SIR CHARLES WENTWORTH DILKE.

(Born 24 Sept. 1843. Died 26 Jan. 1911.)

It is with sincere regret that we chronicle the death of Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke. By his demise the British Parliament has lost one of its ablest members, humanity an earnest advocate, and Greece a sincere and consistent friend.

Sir Charles Dilke was born in London in the year 1843. After an exceptionally brilliant school and University career he made his appearance in public life as member of Parliament for Chelsea in 1868. His extraordinary ability as a statesman was quickly recognised in the House of Commons, and he was selected to fill a succession of important administrative posts. In 1880 he was appointed by Mr. Gladstone to be Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and in 1882 he became a member of the Cabinet as President of the Local Government Board. The following year he was Chairman of the Royal Commission on the Housing of the Working Classes, among his fellow-members being the late King Edward (then Prince of Wales), Lord Salisbury, and Cardinal Manning. He was also Chairman of the Commission for Negotiations with France, and, at a later period, Chairman of the Select Committee on Income-tax. At the time of his death Sir Charles represented the Forest of Dean, having held that seat for nineteen years.

The spell of Hellas was cast over Sir Charles Dilke at a very early age. There is little doubt that the inspiration he received from Greek sources exerted a considerable amount of influence upon his career, and had not a little to do with developing in him those peculiar qualities to which he owed much of his eminence. As a schoolboy he displayed a deep interest in Greek literature and Greek art, and, when a young man, could express himself in Greek with a facility seldom acquired by an Englishman. In the last manuscript that came from his pen the influence of these early studies is clearly observable in the Greek modelling of his handwriting.

This early devotion to Greek culture bred in Sir Charles Dilke an admiration which, at a maturer age, deepened into sincere and lasting friendship for Greece and her people. When Sir Charles became a power in British politics this friendship was expressed in a long series of efforts, often attended with considerable success, to persuade British statesmen to throw all the weight of their influence upon the side of Greece in the deliberations of the Great Powers, so that her rights as a nation might be properly recognised. The definite assistance accorded by British statesmanship to Greece at many critical points in her later history is to be traced to this influence, either directly or indirectly. This was notably the case in the negotiations conducted between the Great Powers with reference to the Near Eastern troubles, also during the struggles of the Cretan people for union with their Greek kindred, and—at what was perhaps the most important juncture of all—during the international negotiations which ended in the annexation of Thessaly to Greece. This benevolent influence had again to be exercised at the close of the last war with Turkey, when Greece was threatened with dismemberment by being once more deprived of Thessaly, and was saved from this fate chiefly owing to the uncompromising attitude of the British Government.

Amid all the pressure of public duties Sir Charles found time for authorship, and wrote upon a wide variety of subjects with knowledge and conviction. He was a capable art critic, having in his younger days taken a Queen's Prize for art subjects at South Kensington. On Modern History he was a leading authority, and his marvellous stores of information not infrequently enabled him to present a view of some important historical episode which completely reversed public opinion upon the subject. His knowledge of remote lands, derived from books, was so accurate and extensive that explorers sometimes refused to believe that Sir Charles had not himself visited the countries which he described so vividly.

It was, however, in the domain of British Imperial politics that Sir Charles Dilke achieved his greatest literary successes. His *Greater Britain* is stated by competent authorities to have done more to awaken the sense of Imperial responsibility in England than any other single book ever published, and *Imperial Defence*, written in collaboration with Mr. H. Spenser Wilkinson, is admitted to be the best work of reference upon that difficult subject.

In all these branches of literary activity the pen of Sir Charles Dilke was ever ready to plead for or to defend the country whose art and literature he had learned to revere. Not content with championing the cause of Greece in the British Parliament, he advocated the recognition of her rights in a multitude of publications where his influence and ability secured him a hearing. In his own journals and those over which he exercised control no harsh criticism of Greece was ever permitted to appear; and when any unfavourable reference to her managed to elude the editors Sir Charles's note, scribbled on the margin of the proof—"The Greeks will not like this"—was sufficient to procure its deletion. One of the last productions that came from his pen was an eloquent introduction to a work dealing with the rights of Crete, which we understand is at present in course of publication.

It is not improbable that Sir Charles Dilke's admiration for Greece fostered in him some of the characteristics of the race whom he admired. Besides a deep and abiding love of art for art's sake, and that passionate devotion to scholarship which was his outstanding characteristic, he entertained all the veneration of the ancient Greeks for the perfect human form. "Tout savant est un peu cadavre" is a well-known French proverb. But Sir Charles Dilke, though a *savant* to his finger-tips, was not a whit cadaverous. On the contrary, he had trained his physical powers to a high degree of excellence, and presented a splendid example of vigorous and completely developed manhood. He

was one of the finest swordsmen of his time, and, when long past the age of sixty, kept up his rowing practice, in which branch of athletics he had achieved notable distinction in his college days. The ideal of the sound mind in a sound body was fully realised by Sir Charles Dilke in his own person.

Besides uniting in himself diverse qualities which are seldom found associated in the same individual—profound and exact scholarship subsisting side by side with a keen grasp of practical affairs; enthusiasm for art combined with devotion to sport in its manliest forms—Sir Charles Dilke possessed an ardent love of humanity. His championship of Greece and defence of her people was simply one channel through which his humanitarianism found suitable expression. The sufferings of the Cretan people during the periods of cruel Turkish repression, and the terrible atrocities perpetrated upon Greeks, either among the mountains of Macedonia or on the plains of Cilicia, were not the only objects that evoked his sympathy. Whenever a cry for help arose from oppressed peoples in any part of the world it found a ready response in his heart. Through the medium of Sir Charles Dilke it would be transmitted to the House of Commons, and later voiced by British diplomatists, whose remonstrances were listened to with respect, because if necessity arose they could be supported by British cannon.

The humanitarian spirit of Sir Charles Dilke was manifested at home in his untiring advocacy of measures for securing better social conditions for the labouring population. Though the proper housing of the working classes and the reduction of child labour were matters that claimed his especial support, his interest ranged over the whole programme of social reform. His solicitude for the welfare of the workers found expression in numberless ways, both public and private, and the labouring classes of Great Britain have good reason to cherish the memory of their benefactor with feelings of gratitude.

"As long as I am any use to others I must work," said Sir Charles upon one occasion, and this principle animated him to the close of his life. Towards the end of 1910 his health began to fail, and he consented reluctantly to spend a few weeks in the South of France in order to try and recover it. It was too late, however, and he returned home to die. Even in this extremity he did not cease from work, for a friend who called to see him on his death-bed found him engaged in the revision of a pile of Blue Books and statistical returns which had been sent while he was away. In the words of one who knew Sir Charles well, his was "a noble, industrious, and well-spent life, memorable in literature, art, and social progress."

To Greece the loss will come at this juncture with peculiar emphasis. There has been more than one attempt in recent years to force a quarrel upon her, and entice her into strife for which she has no liking, and which would only end in disaster for her. At such times her friends have stood by her, and the sinister designs of the mischief-makers have been frustrated. But there is no guarantee that these will not be renewed at any time, and Greece may need her friends' help again. There is no doubt that she will receive it. The debt which European civilisation owes to the ennobling influence of Greek culture and Greek ideals is repaid by the warm friendship of many able and distinguished men. But the place amongst these once occupied by Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke will be a difficult one to fill. H.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS AND TURKISH POLICY.

The criticisms which we have felt obliged in these columns to direct from time to time upon the policy of the Young Turks received ample confirmation in the Upper Chamber of the British Parliament during the debate upon the Address from the Throne. Lord Lansdowne put an interrogation and received an answer from Lord Crewe, the representative of the Government, which not only prove that the methods of the Turkish Government are unconstitutional and tyrannical, but that the generous traditions of the British people, despite the blunting influence of commercial interests, are as vigorous to-day as ever. The terms of both question and reply are set out in the appended report, and will serve to convince the reader that unconstitutional proceedings must have been carried to extraordinary lengths in Turkey to merit an exposure so severe in quarters usually reticent and dignified.

Lord Lansdowne.

May I say one word upon another foreign question which is not mentioned in the gracious Speech from the Throne? There have been during the last few days very disquieting reports in regard to Macedonia. An operation described as disarmament is in progress in that most long-suffering corner of the world. An army which has lately been employed in Albania under a general who appears to be a soldier of a very strenuous description has now visited Macedonia, and it is reported that the disarmament is being carried out in circumstances of very great barbarity and in a very partial manner. It is said that a Turkish Member of Parliament assured his audience that in the three districts of Salonika, Monastir, and Uskub no fewer than 4,000 persons had been maltreated, of whom 61 had been permanently disabled and 11 beaten to death. I do not know whether his Majesty's Government are aware of these occurrences; but I do trust we shall hear that they are being watched with a vigilant eye; and we cannot be surprised that the comment on them should be that confidence in the new Constitutional system has been gravely shattered in Turkey.

Lord Crewe.

The noble marquis asked me a question with regard to the state of affairs in Macedonia. I can assure him that my right hon. friend and his Department will not fail to watch most carefully all the accounts which they receive of what is happening there. Nor, I think, shall I be wrong in saying that I am quite certain that if opportunity occurs, my right hon. friend will not fail to convey to the Turkish Government the feelings of pain with which public opinion in this country must receive reports of the kind which the noble marquis has mentioned—assuming, of course, that those reports are well founded. We all, I am sure, hope that the Turkish Government will recognise the responsibility which they have for the fair treatment of all races and creeds in that part of the Empire over which the Sultan rules.

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THE PAN-HELLENIC UNION OF AMERICA.

APPEAL TO PRESIDENT TAFT.

In our last number we gave a report of a large and enthusiastic meeting held in Boston in defence of the rights of Crete. At that meeting a resolution was passed and directed to be forwarded to the President of the United States. We now reproduce the text of the covering letter which was forwarded along with the resolutions to President Taft by the Chairman of the meeting, as well as the complete wording of the resolutions themselves.

HON. WILLIAM TAFT,
President of the United States,
Washington, D.C.

MR. PRESIDENT,—I have the honour to enclose herewith a copy of the resolutions in favour of Crete, adopted in Faneuil Hall on February 17, 1911, at a mass meeting held under the auspices of the Pan-Hellenic Union.

The struggle for freedom of that island is of long standing, and the sympathy and interest shown by the people of the United States for the Cretans are too well known to need any comment on my part.

This interest was attested by the resolutions adopted by Congress in July, 1868, and the aid given at that time by the people of this country to the unfortunate Cretan refugees and to their sick and disabled warriors.

Therefore the suggestion of mediation referred to in the resolutions adopted in Faneuil Hall, far from being a departure from precedent, is in accordance with the expressed wish of Congress in 1868.

Nor is the Monroe Doctrine contrary to the offer of good offices in European politics. On the contrary, in that memorable message, Mr. Monroe, referring to the then forcible intervention in Spain by France—as mandatory of the Allied Powers—said, "To what extent such intervention may be carried is a question which interests also even a Power so remote like the United States."

May I, therefore, venture to hope that you will kindly offer your good offices to the European Powers, urging the speedy and final settlement of the Cretan question—which is a perennial source of trouble in the Near East—in accordance with the wishes, aspirations and hopes of the gallant inhabitants of that historical island?

Yours very respectfully,
THEODORE P. ION,
President, Pan-Hellenic Union.

RESOLUTIONS.

Whereas the historical Island of Crete in the Mediterranean has been from time immemorial and still is Greek in race, traditions, language and national aspirations;

Whereas her long, gallant, and at times single-handed fight against the Turks, her last conquerors, has won the applause of the civilised world;

Whereas in view of the enormous sacrifices, both in blood and property, sustained by its Greek inhabitants during the whole course of the nineteenth century, Europe had, at last, decided to favour the realisation of the long cherished wish of the Cretans, and gave to the King of Greece the right to nominate the High Commissioner of the Island;

Whereas in consequence of such action of the four Protecting Powers, namely, England, France, Russia, and Italy, the rights of the Sultan—if there were any left—were only nominal, being called suzerain and lastly supreme;

Whereas after the recent declaration of union with Greece by the Cretan Assembly, the Protecting Powers have notified the Cretan Executive Committee that they would favourably consider such union;

Whereas the Powers, now forgetful of their promises to the Cretans, recently notified Turkey that they would preserve her "sovereign rights" in the island, and would also consider at a future time the manner of its administration;

Whereas this was a wanton violation of their repeated pledges to the Cretans and an intention on their part to bring Crete again under actual Turkish rule;

Whereas the existence of any rights, be they sovereign, suzerain, or supreme, would probably encourage Turkey to renew her experiment, which succeeded in the island of Samos, another Greek island whose autonomy had been guaranteed by some of the European Powers;

Whereas as long as there remains any vestige of international treaty that no Turkish troops shall be stationed in Samos, Turkey has violated it by military occupation of the island;

Whereas, as long as there remains any vestige of Ottoman rule in Crete the Porte will likely repeat the experiment of Samos;

Whereas the unsettled condition of the Cretan question is likely to result in serious troubles and bloodshed in the Near East;

Whereas it is just and right that the European Powers should fulfil their promises to the Cretans by ratifying the act of union of the Island with Greece;

Be it therefore

Resolved, by the citizens of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and others in the Faneuil Hall assembled,

That we urge the President of the United States to offer his mediation in case any attempt is made to coerce the Cretans to accept Turkish rule.

GREEK DEPUTIES FROM ABROAD.

One of the most encouraging features in the reform movement in Greece is the keen interest displayed in the work of the National Assembly by Greeks living abroad and the active share which some of them are taking in it.

Deputies have been elected to the National Assembly from the Greek colonies in England and Egypt. The two deputies from Egypt are Mr. E. Benachi and Mr. G. Zervoudakis, whose numerous and munificent benefactions to Greek public institutions have evoked feelings of respect and esteem among Greeks everywhere. Soon after his election Mr. Benachi was appointed Minister of Commerce, and his business sagacity and devotion to national interests have already produced an excellent result in that department.

The deputy from England is Mr. G. Zochonis, who is well known in business circles in Manchester. The liberality of Mr. Zochonis to national objects and his deep interest in all that concerns the welfare of the Kingdom entitle him to a high place of honour among his compatriots.

The honour of being elected to the National Assembly is one that is likely to entail upon Mr. Zochonis some sacrifice, seeing that while he is engaged in legislating for Greece the management of his great business in Manchester will have to be delegated to other hands. But no one who knows Mr. Zochonis will doubt that such a sacrifice will be cheerfully made. His decision to participate in political work was prompted solely by the knowledge that at the present critical juncture Greece requires the services of her ablest and most experienced men, wherever residing. And with Mr. Zochonis the interests of Greece have ever taken precedence over all others. The whole-hearted devotion of such as he cannot fail to produce that result which all good Greeks desire—the thorough regeneration of the kingdom, and her entrance upon the path that leads to peace, national honour, and prosperity.

A SLANDER REFUTED.

In reply to a passage which appeared in a recent number of the "Times" reflecting adversely upon the character of the Greeks resident in England, the Greek Consul-General in London, Mr. John Stavridi, addressed to that paper a very able and incisive remonstrance. His letter not only refutes absolutely the false suggestion conveyed by the writer in the "Times," but demonstrates conclusively that the Greeks are among the best of all those elements which come from other countries to seek a home in Great Britain.

The text of Mr. Stavridi's letter as it appeared in the "Times" is as follows:—

GREECE AND THE ALIENS QUESTION.

(To the Editor of the *Times*.)

SIR,—As one has come to look upon any statement made by the *Times* as the very acme of truth, the last sentence in your leader of the 5th inst., in regard to the Stepney incident and aliens in England, caused me the utmost astonishment. The sentence is as follows:—

> We should hope, too, that the Governments of the countries from which the undesirables chiefly come—in recent days, Turkey, Greece, Russia, and Italy—may be induced to realise their responsibility.

As regards Greece this statement was, to my personal knowledge, so contrary to the truth that I took some trouble to ascertain whether it was possible that you had in your possession private information that had not been vouchsafed me. I communicated this extract from your leader and my own opinion on the question to the Commissioners of the Metropolitan and City Police, and asked for a statement of their experience in the matter. The latter replied immediately as follows:—

> We have few aliens residing in the City, and, therefore, though personally I agree in the conclusion you draw, I cannot officially confirm it.

Sir Edward Henry, on the other hand, took time to look into the matter, and he now authorises me to state that he had his own definite opinion upon the point, but before replying to me thought it well to consult his officers in charge of districts inhabited by Greeks, and he was glad to obtain confirmation of his own view that the Greeks in London are as a body law-abiding citizens.

I can therefore only imagine that your leader-writer had gathered his information from a perfunctory perusal of the fourth annual report of his Majesty's Inspector under the Aliens Act. It is true that on page 8 of this report the Inspector states that 1,347 persons were refused liberty to land in England, "divided amongst the following nationalities:—Greeks and Ottomans, 398; Russians, 296; Italians, 268. . . ."

This seems to give colour to your statement, but if your leader-writer had read a few lines further on he would have found that the Inspector goes on to say:—

> The fact that 398 aliens classified under the heading of Greeks and Ottomans—an increase of over 300 upon the number for 1908—were refused leave to land during the year calls for some comment. Practically the whole of these 398 were Armenians and Syrians who were on their way to America. . . .

I need hardly point out to you that neither Armenians nor Syrians are Greeks. There is no doubt that the Inspector's classification of Greeks and Ottomans in one group, however convenient for the purpose of his report, is one that may work injustice to the Greeks, as is clearly proved by your own leader.

I should like to point out in conclusion that, apart from two distressing cases of sailors working on English ships who became mentally deranged, there are no cases of Greek subjects mentioned as having been relieved by the Poor Law and none that have come on to the rates. As regards aliens convicted in England, I believe that I am right in saying that the number of Greek subjects convicted for misdemeanour or felony during the last two years could be counted on the fingers of one hand. This, surely, is a record of which any foreign community in England might well be proud.

In view of the false impression created by your statement I trust that you will see your way to give publicity to this rectification.

I am, sir, yours obediently,

I. J. STAVRIDI,
Consul-General for Greece.

40, Old Broad Street, E.C.,
January 31.

THE PICTORIAL ART OF GREECE.

I.—PRELIMINARY.

Although the claim of Greece to pre-eminence in the art of sculpture has never been seriously challenged, it rests on a basis actually less substantial than her right to be regarded as the creator of the art of painting. In sculpture the genius of the Greeks had only to perfect the results attained by Eastern nations like the Egyptians and Assyrians. In painting the Greeks struck out a line for themselves, and, following it to its natural conclusion, achieved nothing short of a revolution. This result was not attained all at once. The pictorial art of Greece had its crude and infantile beginnings which gave little promise of the harvest that was to follow. The rate of progress was slow. Many false steps had to be retraced, and many difficulties overcome. But the natural instinct of the Greek people for true art surmounted every obstacle, and when, in the fourth century before the Christian era, Apelles rose to eminence, painting as an art had been carried in Greece to a perfection which it never attained before.

The supremacy of the artists of ancient Greece is plentifully attested by contemporary writers. In prose and verse such painters as Polygnotus, Zeuxis, and Apelles are as much extolled as the sculptors Myron, Pheidias, and Praxiteles. Indeed, artists are often spoken of in terms of higher praise than their brethren of the chisel. The elder Pliny, for instance, in his treatise upon ancient art, devotes a good deal of space to the painters Zeuxis, Apelles, and Parrhasios, though he dismisses such eminent sculptors as Pheidias and Praxiteles in very few words. There is little doubt that the reason why the painters of ancient Greece have not received their due reward of praise in later times is because of the perishable nature of the materials in which they worked. Although classical literature teems with allusions to the marvellous excellence of their productions, not a single specimen of their art has been handed down to our times. While we can judge of the achievements of Greek sculptors from actual specimens, or at least creditable copies, of their work, executed in the same medium as the original, we are obliged to form a conception of the genius of the great Greek painters from house decorations and pottery. It is true that these wall and vase paintings were sometimes executed by workmen whose skill occasionally approached real art; but the awkwardness of position entailed upon the artist while engaged in painting on walls and pottery, the clumsy

and coarse media which had to be employed, and the limitations of form and space were such as to make it impossible to produce anything like a faithful copy of any great picture.

Of the remains of ancient Greek paintings which have descended to us by far the greater number are borne upon pottery. Paintings upon wood, skin, or cloth, if they ever existed, have disappeared entirely from our knowledge. Even where the material which bore the painting has been preserved, the colours have in most cases so nearly vanished as to leave but the faintest trace of an outline. The Naples Museum contains several marble slabs bearing drawings in red lines which are among the finest that have descended to us from antiquity. On the most beautiful of these an Athenian artist called Alexandros has signed his name. At first the designs on these slabs were regarded as mere drawings and not pictures, but a similar slab was later discovered which exhibited within almost identical red outlines the remains of an exquisitely beautiful painting in colours. It was therefore clear that what had been regarded as drawings were only the remains of completed pictures. The colours of the last picture have almost disappeared in the short time that it has been exposed to the light. We mention this to illustrate how prone examples of the painter's art are to vanish, and of the futility of expecting ever to find any genuine picture by one of the great artists of antiquity.

As has been indicated, mural paintings or paintings upon slabs intended to be let into the walls of edifices, beautiful as they often are, must not be accepted as conveying any adequate idea of the great masterpieces of ancient times. Very few of them are better than the work of ordinary house decorators, and bear little relation to art in its highest development. Nevertheless, although mostly the work of artisans, they furnish some information regarding the progress made by the ancients in technique, and frequent reference will be made to them in the sections of this paper which are to follow.

Another means by which we may be helped to a conception of the greatness of the master painters of antiquity is by a study of the painted vases which have been preserved to us. While the colours upon these have certainly been better preserved than those of the frescoes, being burnt in upon the fabric, they convey a relatively poorer idea of the delicacy and finish of paintings from a master hand. Not only did the materials used in vase-painting render it impossible to reproduce the delicacy of the master artist, but the haste with which the work had perforce to be executed upon the absorbent clay put anything like study or reflection in execution out of the question. The outlines had to be bold and continuous, and the artist dared not raise his pencil from any figure which he had once begun. As the work proceeded, the dark colours became confused with the tint of the clay, and the lines, which at first had broadened, contracted so as to leave only a faint trace. The artist could therefore at times discern only with difficulty what he was doing. The vase painter had to contend besides with other difficulties which were never encountered by the artist who painted pictures, and it is consequently unreasonable to take, as some authorities have done, the paintings upon the vases of some particular period as representing the absolute level to which art had at that time attained.

It is customary to commence any description of Greek painting at what is known as the Geometric Age, and trace its development from the crude decorations upon the vases of that period. But the discoveries in recent times of remains of prehistoric art in such localities as Tiryns and Mycenæ, Cyprus and Crete, have demonstrated that the beginnings of Greek painting must be sought further back, and our next instalment will deal with that phase of Greek art known as Mycenæan or Ægean. Prior to what is known as the Dorian invasion, this form of art subsisted over the whole area of the Ægean. Though almost banished for a time it never entirely disappeared from Greece, and it is to its careful study of nature, its freshness, spontaneity, and true artistic feeling that we must look for the elements which gradually overpowered the crude mechanical designs brought from the north by the Dorian invaders, and laid the foundations of an art to which modern painters owe more than they often realise. H.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE GREEK ARCHÆOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

A Statue by Euphranor.

Two communications of considerable importance have recently been made to the Greek Archæological Society, one by Mr. Œconomou, Ephor of Antiquities in Corinthia, Argolis, and Arcadia; the other by Mr. A. Keramopoulos, formerly Ephor of Antiquities in Bœotia, and recently appointed Director of the Epigraphical Museum at Athens.

Mr. Œconomou dealt with the excavations which were made near the Theseion in the hope of finding the ancient Agora, and he described the objects discovered there. Among these were a long and important inscription containing a law on the "Aparchæ" of Eleusis, and another of considerable length relating to the mines of Laureum. The latter, besides giving the names of the mines and making references to many persons, imparts a good deal of very important information about different parts of Attica as well. A third inscription tells us for the first time the name of an Athenian archon called Athenodorus. But the most important discovery of all is the finding of the torso of a beautiful statue of Apollo, of heroic dimensions, and this Mr. Œconomou identifies as the statue executed by the renowned sculptor Euphranor, as mentioned by Pausanias. The inscriptions point to the fact that under the Theseion there was situated the famous Metroon of Athens, about the position of which archæologists have disputed for centuries.

Stele from Warriors' Graves near the Theseion.

Mr. Keramopoulos exhibited and interpreted various representations of warriors which are in the museum of Thebes. These are engraved on a hard black stone, and have been taken from tombs for which they served as distinguishing marks. The execution of these representations is highly artistic, and warrants their being regarded as among the most precious archæological treasures of Greece. One of them represents Myson wearing a chiton and helmet and wielding his spear and shield. Another shows Rynchon wearing an embroidered chlamys, luxurious sandals, and a helmet decorated with a crown of laurel. He also is represented wielding his spear and shield. Mr. Keramopoulos demonstrated that the youthful warrior was a crowned priest of the Ismenian Apollo of Thebes. On the pediment of the stele there are represented a figure which is conjectured to be the father of Rynchon, Rynchon himself as a boy, and a female figure, probably his mother, seated on the chariot of Manto.

Mr. Keramopoulos found two more representations of the same kind in Tanagra. The one is a

tomb stele of Koeranos in the same attitude as the figures described above. It is, unfortunately, much mutilated. The other represents Saugenis wearing a crowned helmet, an *exomis*, elaborate sandals, and a gorgeous shield resembling that of Rynchon. The shield bears on the inside a representation of the slaying of the Chimæra by Bellerophon mounted on Pegasus. Saugenis is fighting only with his dagger, his spear having been broken. One half of the latter weapon is represented lying on the ground, on which are shown also a number of boulders, a tree, and an anemone. In front of Rynchon's head are figured a stone and the head of a spear which have been hurled by the enemy, and which in a moment will encompass the warrior's death. On the pediment of the stele are represented two men feasting, and waited on by a boy cupbearer. There are also some representations of iron implements, namely, an anvil, a hammer, and tongs.

In a future issue we hope to be able to convey to our readers further information regarding these figures, which have been commented upon but briefly by Mr. Keramopoulos.

THE AUSTRIAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

Researches in the Plain of Elis.

At the first meeting of the Austrian School of Archæology at Athens, Mr. Premerstein, under whose able direction the school has made notable progress since its establishment a few years ago, spoke on the subject of the "Curved Elis," the extensive plain near the mouth of the river Peneus. He also alluded to the river Menios mentioned by Pausanias, by whose agency Hercules cleansed the Augean stables. The latter is, in the opinion of Mr. Premerstein, identical with the little stream Langadion.

The "Curved Elis," according to the speaker, formed an extensive inhabited area, but without a central city. Such a city was founded by the dispersed population after the Persian wars, though it was unprotected by any wall. According to Xenophon, it extended not only along the left bank of the Peneus, but along the right as well. In the year 312 B.C. the Acropolis only was fortified, and it was not long before this was destroyed. Regarding the buildings of the city in Hellenic times we have lengthy descriptions by Pausanias, who found it in a flourishing condition.

Christianity came early to Elis, as is demonstrated by inscriptions of the third century A.D. By the Middle Ages there was a flourishing Byzantine town in the plain. Here the Franks erected a strong fortress, by means of which they dominated the surrounding neighbourhood. In modern times some important topographical studies have been conducted at Elis by English scholars (Leake 1805, Dodwel, and Stanhopes), but no excavations of a scientific character. In carrying out its excavations in this neighbourhood the Austrian School has encountered many obstacles. Unfortunately, owing to the absence of quarries, the inhabitants during the Roman and Byzantine periods used the remains of the Greek monuments as building material, while the edifices of the Roman period, which were constructed of brick, have been better preserved. A serious difficulty in the way of excavators was the fact that the remains were scattered over an area of about three square miles.

Fragments of vases belonging to the prehistoric age have been found only in the Acropolis, which seems to have been the sole part inhabited during that period. Some remains of columns have also been unearthed. These perhaps came from the Temple of Athena described by Pausanias, the situation of which was probably occupied in later times by the Frankish fortress. Marble was used only in the buildings belonging to the Greek period, although the walls of many of these structures were merely faced with marble slabs set in cement. The most important of the buildings discovered was the Octagonon. Near this edifice, which in the Christian era was transformed into a church, there were found a number of inscribed tombstones. In one double tomb a golden ornament was discovered, and this has been deposited in the Museum at Athens. In some of the tombs there were also discovered vases of local manufacture, the value and significance of which will, however, require special study.

Ancient Greek Remains in England.

In the course of excavations at Welwyn, Hertfordshire, England, two prehistoric graves were discovered, in which were several interesting archæological treasures. Among these were several amphoræ or wine-jars, some fire implements of iron, and a beautiful Greek cup of exquisite workmanship in silver gilt richly chased. Professor Boyd Dawkins, of Manchester University, who inspected the relics, is of opinion that they belong to what is known as the Prehistoric Iron Age, and must have lain buried since the first century before the Christian era. The discovery implies an early connection between the ancient Britons and the civilised nations of the Mediterranean such as has not been fully realised before.

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MODERN GREEK LITERATURE.

A UNIQUE ACCOUNT-BOOK.

By PAVLOS NIRVANAS.

Our intention in giving these selections is not only to present our readers with typical specimens of modern Greek literature, but to convey some idea of the different phases of national Greek life. In contrast to our last instalment, which was written in a somewhat puristic style and represented an idyllic phase of Greek peasant life. we now reproduce another of those charming chroniques of Mr. Pavlos Nirvanas, which portray with equal felicity but in more demotic language a representative phase of Greek town life. The piquant sense of humour which is typical of this celebrated writer is very well exhibited in the present selection.

The sequel to "The Life of a Goatherd," which we were obliged to hold over from last number, will be included in our next.

Ὁ καπνοπώλης τῆς γειτονιᾶς μου κάμνει μικροπιστώσεις εἰς τοὺς πελάτας του. Ἡ πίστωσις εἶνε εὐκολία καὶ ταυτοχρόνως ἕλξις, τῆς ὁποίας τὴν σημασίαν γνωρίζουν μικρέμποροι καὶ μεγαλέμποροι. Καὶ τὸ μικρὸν καπνοπωλεῖον ἔχει τὴν πελατείαν του, μίαν πελατείαν δεμένην καὶ ἐξησφαλισμένην. Περνᾷ ὁ ἕνας καὶ πέρνει τὸ πακέτο του. "Γράφ' το!" Περνᾷ ὁ ἄλλος καὶ πέρνει τὸ δικό του ἢ τὰ δικά του. "Γράφ' τα!" καὶ αὐτός. Ὁ ἄλλος πέρνει τὰ σιγαρέττα του καὶ φεύγει σιωπηλὸς, χωρὶς νὰ πληρώσῃ. Ἡ σιωπή του σημαίνει πάλιν: "Γράφτο!" Καὶ τὸ ἐμπόριον, κατ' αὐτὸν τὸν τρόπον, μὲ τὰ μικρὰ, ἀπαραίτητα κανονάκια του, πάει ἐμπρός.

Τὴν λογιστικὴν ὑπηρεσίαν τοῦ καταστήματος ἐκτελεῖ ἕνας μικρὸς ὑπηρετᾶκος, κατὰ περιεργότατον τῳόντι τρόπον. Ἔχει μίαν πλάκα κ' ἕνα πετροκόνδυλον καὶ γράφει. Ἀλλὰ τί γράφει: Ἐδῶ εἶνε τὸ περίεργον. Μίαν ἡμέραν ἕνας ἄγνωστος, ποῦ ἐπρομηθεύετο μαζῆ μου, τὴν στιγμὴν ἐκείνην, τὰ καπνά του, δὲν ἠξεύρω πῶς, μοῦ ἐφάνη σὰν γνωστὸν πρόσωπον. Ὅταν ἀπεμακρύνθη, ἠρώτησα τὸν ὑπηρετᾶκον:

—Ποιὸς εἶνε αὐτός;

—Δὲν τὸν γνωρίζω, κύριε.

—Πῶς δὲν τὸν γνωρίζεις, ἀφοῦ τὸν ἐσημείωσες στὴν πλάκα;

Ὁ ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐχαμογέλασεν, ὡς νὰ μ' ἐβεβαίωνεν, ὅτι ἦτο σίγουρος γιὰ τὴ δουλειά του.

—Τὸν ἐσημείωσα! ξαναεῖπε, κρύβων τὴν πλάκα του εἰς τὸ συρτάρι. Τί σὲ μέλει τοῦ λόγου σου;

—Πές μου, νὰ χαρῇς . . . Πές μου! . . .

Ὁ ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐδίστασε μίαν στιγμὴν καὶ ὕστερα, μὲ ὅλας τὰς ἀφελείας τοῦ κόσμου, μοῦ εἶπεν:

—Ἀφοῦ τὸ θέλεις, νά! "Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὴ μύτη." Πῶς νὰ τὸν γράψω, ἀφοῦ δὲν ξέρω τ' ὄνομά του;

Μοῦ ἔδειξεν ἀπὸ μακρυὰ τὴν πλάκα κ' ἐδιάβασα: "Ἐκῆνως μαὶ τὴ μίτοι" . . .

* * *

Τὸ σύστημα τοῦ πρωτοτύπου αὐτοῦ λογιστοῦ ἦτο τῳόντι μοναδικὸν, σοφὸν καὶ πρακτικώτατον. Τί τοῦ ἐχρησίμευε νὰ μάθῃ, ἂν ὁ ὀφειλέτης τοῦ καταστήματος ἐλέγετο Γιαννόπουλος ἢ Δημητρόπουλος; Ἕνα ὄνομα τὸ ξεχνᾷ κανεὶς εὐκολώτερα ἀπὸ μίαν τεραστίαν μύτην. Ἄλλως τε ἕνα ὄνομα δὲν ἐμποδίζει οὔτε τὴν χρεωκοπίαν, οὔτε τὴν κακὴν πίστιν, καὶ μίαν ὑπογραφὴν τὴν ἀρνεῖται κάνεὶς, εἰς κάθε στιγμὴν, ἐνώπιον τῶν δικαστηρίων. Ἐκεῖνος "μὲ τὴ μύτη" ὅμως δὲν ἠμπορεῖ ποτὲ ν' ἀρνηθῇ τὴ μύτη του, ἐκτὸς ἐὰν τὴν κόψῃ.

Δυστυχῶς κάθε νεωτεριστὴς πληρώνει συνήθως ἀκριβὰ τὸν νεωτερισμόν του, ἀπὸ τὸν καιρὸν τοῦ Προμηθέως. Καὶ ὁ πρωτότυπος ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐπλήρωσε καὶ αὐτὸς τὸν φόρον τῶν καινῶν λογιστικῶν δαιμονίων, τὰ ὁποῖα ἀπεπειράθη νὰ εἰσαγάγῃ. Εἶχα πάλιν τὴν τύχην νὰ παρευρεθῶ χθὲς τὸ βράδυ εἰς τὴν σκηνὴν τῆς Νεμέσεως, καὶ σᾶς τὴν διηγοῦμαι πιστῶς. Ἕνας ἀπὸ τοὺς τακτικοὺς πελάτας τοῦ καταστήματος ἐσταμάτησεν εἰς τὸ παραθυράκι, ποῦ ἀπετέλει ὅλον τὸ κατάστημα.

—Πόσα σοῦ θέλω;

—Δυὸ καὶ σαράντα.

The tobacco-seller of my neighbourhood gives credit for trifling amounts to his customers. The convenience and the attractiveness of running up bills is well known to merchants both large and small. And the small tobacco shop has its regular customers, each securely tied to it. One passes and takes his packet of tobacco. "Put it down!" Another passes and takes one packet or more. "Mark them down!" he says. Still another snatches up his cigarettes, and hurries off without a word and without paying. His silence signifies again, "Mark it down!" And trade, after this manner, with the inevitable defalcations, keeps always on.

The book-keeping of the establishment was performed by a diminutive assistant in really comical fashion. He kept a slate and pencil, and wrote. But what did he write? That is the laughable bit. One day a stranger was providing himself with tobacco at the same moment as myself. I do not know how it was, but I seemed to know his face. When he departed I asked the diminutive assistant:—

"Who was that?"

"Don't know, sir."

"What! you do not know him, although you have put him down on your slate!"

The little assistant smiled at me in a manner which testified that for the purpose of his business he was sure enough of his man.

"Oh, yes! I put him down all right," he reiterated, putting away his slate in the drawer. "But what business is it of yours?"

"Tell me, like a good fellow. Do tell me."

The diminutive assistant hesitated for a moment, and then, with all the simplicity in the world, said:—

"Very well, since you wish it—'The man with the Nose'! How should I call him otherwise when I do not know his name?"

He held up his slate to me at a distance, and I read, "The Mane with the Nos."

. . . . . .

The method of this original book-keeper was altogether unique, wise, and most practical. What is the utility of knowing whether the firm's debtor is called Jones or Brown? One forgets a name more easily than an enormous nose. Besides, a name wards off neither bankruptcy nor bad faith, and one repudiates one's signature in the law courts every moment of the day. But one can never repudiate his nose—unless he cuts it off.

Unfortunately the innovator since the time of Prometheus generally pays dearly for his innovations. And the original assistant himself paid the tax of the new book-keeping spirit which he attempted to introduce. I had the luck to find myself there again last evening in the Nemesis scene, and I narrate it faithfully to you. One of the regular customers of the firm halted at the tiny window, which formed the entire establishment.

"How much do I owe you?"

"Two-and-fourpence."

—Ἔχεις λάθος. Μία κ' ἑξῆντα! Νὰ μὴν κλέβετε τὸν κόσμο. . . .

—Δύο καὶ σαράντα, σοῦ λέω. Ἀφοῦ τἄχω γραμμένα.

—Νὰ τὰ ἰδῶ.

—Τί νὰ τὰ ἰδῇς; Ἀφοῦ σοῦ λέω πῶς τάχω γραμμένα. . .

—Φέρ' ἐδῶ τὴν πλάκα.

—Δὲ δίνω πλάκα. Σὰ θέλεις πίστεψε!

Ὁ πελάτης ὥρμησεν ἐξαγριωμένος καὶ ἅρπαξε τὸ μοναδικὸν λογιστικὸν βιβλίον. Μόλις ἔρριψε τὸ πρῶτον βλέμμα ἐπάνω του ἐκοκκίνισεν, ἐκιτρίνισεν, ἄσπρισε καὶ μ' ἕνα σάλτον ἅρπαξε τὸν ὑπηρετᾶκον ἀπὸ τὸν λαιμὸν, τὸν ἔσυρεν ἔξω εἰς τὸ πεζοδρόμιον καὶ τὸν ἐτίναξε κάτω εἰς τὸ χῶμα. Μετὰ δύο δευτερόλεπτα, καὶ πρὶν προφθάσουν νὰ ἐπέμβουν οἱ παριστάμενοι, ὁ μικρὸς ὡμοίαζε, καθὼς ἦτο σωροκουβαριασμένος κατὰ γῆς, μὲ παραγουλισμένον ὀκταπόδι.

Ὁ μανιώδης ἄνθρωπος ἔφευγε γρυλλίζων καὶ βλασφημῶν. Δὲν ἐχρειάζετο πολὺ διὰ νὰ φαντασθῇ κανεὶς τί περίπου τοῦ εἶχε συμβῇ.

* * *

Ἐνῷ τὸ παραγουλισμένον, ταλαίπωρον ὀκταπόδι ἀνελάμβανε βαθμηδὸν τὸ ἀνθρώπινον σχῆμά του, τὸ σῶμα τοῦ ἐγκλήματος εὑρέθηκεν εἰς τὰ χέρια μου. Δύο τρεῖς περίεργοι ἐμαζεύθηκαν ἀκόμη καὶ ἀρχίσαμεν νὰ διαβάζωμεν. Θέλετε νὰ μάθετε τῶρα τὰ ὀνόματα τῶν ὀφειλετῶν τοῦ καπνοπωλείου, τὰ ἐγγεγραμμένα εἰς τὸν μαῦρον πίνακα; Ἀκούσατέ τα.

Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὴ μύτη.
Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὰ γυαλιά.
Ὁ τρεμουλιάρης.
Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὸ βαμμένο μουστάκι.
Ὁ τσεβδός.
Ὁ κουραμπιές.
Τὰ δύο λιμοκοντοράκια. (Ἕνα πακέτο στὰ δύο!)

Ποῖος ὅμως ἆρά γε νὰ ἦτον αὐτὸς, ποῦ ἐξεδικήθη τόσον ἀγρίως ὅλους τοὺς ἐν μαύρῳ πίνακι συναδέλφους του διὰ τὴν φοβερὰν σάτυραν, ἡ ὁποία ἐξεπλήρωνεν ἁπλῶς μίαν ἀθῶαν λογιστικὴν ἀνάγκην; Διέτρεξα μὲ ἀγωνιώδη περιέργειαν τὴν στήλην τῶν ὀφειλῶν. Πουθενὰ 2.40! Ἐπὶ τέλους εἰς μίαν γωνίαν ἀνακαλύπτω τὸν περιζήτητον ἀριθμόν. Κυττάζω ἀπέναντι καὶ διαβάζω. Τί νομίζετε;

ΕΚΕΙΝΟΣ Ο ΜΠΟΥΦΟΣ!

"You are mistaken—one-and-sixpence. You mustn't rob people."

"Two-and-fourpence, I tell you, for I have it written down."

"Let me see it."

"What do you want to see it for? Don't I tell you that I have it written down?"

"Bring the slate here."

"I do not part with the slate. Believe me if you like."

The customer rushed wrathfully forward and clutched the unique account-book. No sooner had he cast the first glance upon it than he turned red, then yellow, then white, and with one spring he grabbed the diminutive assistant by the throat, dragged him out on the pavement, and dashed him upon the ground. In a few seconds, and before the bystanders had an opportunity to interfere, the little fellow, rolled up as he was like a ball upon the ground, resembled a stuffed octopus.

The infuriated man tore off, growling and swearing. One had not much difficulty in guessing what had happened to him.

. . . . . .

While the unfortunate stuffed octopus was gradually recovering his human shape, the cause of the outrage fell into my hands. Two or three curious bystanders came forward, and we began to read. Would you like to know now the names of the debtors of the tobacco shop which were written upon the dark slate? Then listen:—

"The Man with the Nose."
"The One with the Spectacles."
"The Shaker."
"Him with the Dyed Moustaches."
"The Stutterer."
"The One with the Dough Face."
"The Two Fops (one packet between two)."

Who, then, was this who so savagely avenged all his fellows upon the dark slate for the horrible satire which simply fulfilled an innocent part of book-keeping? I ran through the columns of the debtors. Nowhere two-and-fourpence! At last in one corner I discovered the figures so much sought. I look opposite, and I read—what do you think?—

"THE BLOCKHEAD!"

BACK NUMBERS OF THE HELLENIC HERALD

In reply to repeated inquiries, we beg to inform new subscribers and others that we have still in stock a limited number of previous issues of the HELLENIC HERALD. These previous issues contain a reliable and fully documented account, not otherwise obtainable in concise form, of the recent history of the Near East. They also contain numerous valuable and interesting papers by distinguished authorities (both English and Foreign) on the historical, literary, and social affairs of the Near East, and particularly of Greece.

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FAMOUS PICTURES IN ATHENS.

A PICTURE GALLERY TO BE ERECTED.

In Greece, where the art of sculpture attained its greatest perfection, painting became overshadowed by the renown arising from successive discoveries of great masterpieces of the sister art. On this account no definite movement was ever made in later times to secure the proper housing of such pictures as Greece possessed. Museums of sculpture there were in plenty, but not a single gallery for the exhibition of paintings as such.

This unsatisfactory state of affairs is to be altered in the near future, and a large picture gallery is going to be erected in Athens. The public have become aware that a large and almost priceless collection of paintings by great masters has been lying for years in a more or less neglected condition in the rooms at the Polytechnic in Athens, and a demand has arisen that these should be properly displayed and cared for. How these paintings came there, and how their existence became generally known is as follows:—

Rich and patriotic Greeks resident in all parts of the world had become possessed of masterpieces of the painter's art. At the death of the owners these pictures were frequently bequeathed to the nation, and, there being no proper building for their reception, they were simply stored away in the Polytechnic. Here they reposed amid dust and general neglect. In process of time there accumulated a large collection of paintings whose existence was almost undreamt of outside a small committee who were supposed to look after them.

Four years ago several Greek artists, having learned of the existence of the pictures, visited the collection, and discovered that it contained a large number of really precious works, among them being examples of the very greatest artists. One of the pictures they found to be a portrait of the painter Snyders by Van Dyck. There are also a Portrait of an Old Lady by Rembrandt; the famous representation of "Eleazer and Rebecca" and the "Prayer in the Garden," both by Tiepolo; the "Annunciation," by Alonzo Caruro, of the school of Murillo; "Le Roi Boit," a very large and beautiful piece by Jordaens; the "Joseph" of Giardano; the "Dance of Angels" and "The Education of Eros," by Correggio (a copy of the latter is in the National Gallery in London). There are also "The Four Seasons," the "Esther," and the "Wedding in Cana," by Veronese; the "Taking down of the Body from the Cross," by Van Dyck; the "Alexander the Great," by Salvator Rosa; and some of the productions of the contemporary Greek painters Guise and Œconomo. Altogether, the whole collection numbers about 600 pictures.

When this momentous discovery was first made the artists present formed themselves into a committee, under the presidency of the well-known statesman, Mr. S. Scouloudi, himself an art-lover and skilled collector, in order to arouse public opinion to the necessity of housing such valuable treasures in a fitting manner. As a preliminary, measures were taken to have the pictures rescued from their neglected condition. A few of them were therefore entrusted for renovation to Mr. G. Hazzapoulo, an artist and skilful restorer, and these were so admirably treated that the work of renovating the entire collection was entrusted to him. This task he undertook with the most praiseworthy zeal and patriotic devotion, labouring untiringly for over two years without fee or reward. The result has been wonderfully successful, and reflects the greatest credit upon Mr. Hazzapoulo.

The committee now set themselves in earnest to move the authorities to provide a suitable home for such a noble collection of masterpieces. We are happy to be able to state that these efforts have been crowned with success, and a suitable building is to be provided by the Government. Art will now be represented in Athens not by sculpture alone, but by masterpieces of the sister art as well, and this fact should prove an additional attraction to those who come from distant lands to gaze upon the classic glories of ancient Hellas. May we not also cherish the hope that the presence of such a collection in their midst will serve as a stimulus to Greek artists to regain supremacy in painting—a branch of art in which, equally with sculpture, they were at one time pre-eminent?

REVIEWS.

WHERE FIRE SMOULDERS.*

"Although the difficulties to be overcome by the Young Turks, especially in Asia Minor, are enormous, yet these reformers must remember it is only by abandoning the nationalistic attitude, which I learn, especially of late, has become more noticeable, and by trying to gain the confidence of the subject races of the Empire, that Turkish rule can be established on a basis that will tend to develop the vast resources of the Empire. . . . It is clear that a policy of entirely alienating the sympathy of the Greeks, who so largely make up the trading and commercial classes in Turkey, may not only bring on a war, the termination of which it is difficult to prophesy, but such a system may also be productive of other far-reaching results, which would be most disastrous to the Empire."

This passage so accurately expresses our own sentiments that it might easily be taken as an extract from any one of the leaders that have appeared in the *Hellenic Herald* since the institution of the new *régime* in Turkey. Yet it was not penned by anyone personally or nationally interested in the development of the situation in the Near East. It was written by a practical, level-headed Englishman, who journeyed to the Near East in order to describe the situation exactly as it presented itself to his critical vision, and whose reports were published in the *Nation*, the *Westminster Gazette*, the *Manchester Daily Dispatch*, and other responsible English newspapers. Mr. H. Charles Woods, the writer, has since published an excellent book upon the subject, in which the above words may be found, and this work should be read and studied by every one who desires to be fully informed upon the politics of the Near East.

Turkey.

The author begins with a description of Turkey as it exists under the new *régime*. Though manifestly inclined to be friendly to the Young Turks, he is nevertheless compelled to place his finger upon many of the abuses to which we ourselves have been obliged to direct attention. The base manner in which the elections for the Turkish Parliament were manipulated, so as to secure the return of Ottoman deputies where Christians predominated, comes in for severe condemnation; and the wanton hampering and destruction of the educational institutions of the Christian population also strikes him as peculiarly unjust. He describes in a vivid manner the congestion of public business brought about by the jealousy with which the Young Turks refuse to

* *The Danger Zone of Europe.* By H. Charles Woods, F.R.G.S. (London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d. net).

entrust public affairs to any hands but their own; and he confirms our own oft-repeated assertion that the Turkish Government itself is responsible for the needlessly cruel and wicked boycott of the trade of their Greek subjects, and could stop the vile proceedings at any moment they liked.

Among the many disturbing factors that bear upon the situation in the Turkish Empire, Mr. Woods considers the violent and almost savage method of enforcing the Brigandage "Law" to be one of the most serious. As we have repeatedly pointed out, this project, although it has furnished the ground of many acts of barbarism, is not really a law at all. It is nothing more than the draft of a Bill which was never presented to the Ottoman Parliament, and was never passed by the Legislature. When one remembers the almost ungovernable fury of the periodic outbursts of Moslem fanaticism against the Christians in Turkey, and the desperation with which the latter have sometimes had to defend their own and their families' lives from fanatical assailants, and when one also recollects the fate of the Adana Christians after they had surrendered their arms under a guarantee of protection from the Turkish authorities, the sinister meaning of the following passage will come with redoubled force. Mr. Woods, commenting upon the senselessness of torturing Christians for not delivering up more arms, after they had actually surrendered all they possessed, says:—

"The great proportion of the Christians only want to retain their rifles and revolvers for self-preservation, and were they once confident of the good intentions of the Turkish Government they would give up their arms willingly. There is no doubt that the question of disarmament is in itself excellent, but if disarmament has once been decided upon it should be disarmament for the whole population, and not for Christians alone. Not only, however, have Moslems been allowed to retain their rifles, but in some cases it is said that those actually taken from Christian peasants have been issued to Mohammedan settlers (*mouhaggirs*).

The Albanian Rising.

Mr. Woods sets out with remarkable clearness the various causes that led up to the Albanian insurrection against the Young Turkish Government. This is a chapter which deserves to be read with the closest attention, containing as it does a fine description of Albania and the life of its inhabitants. The causes of the insurrection in Albania are in the main identical with those which are producing the unrest in the Turkish Empire at large, although several circumstances contribute to render them more dangerous in Albania than elsewhere. Mr. Woods is far-sighted enough to discern serious trouble in store for the Turkish authorities in Albania unless they abandon their high-handed methods and treat the Albanians in a rational way.

There is, for the Greeks, one disturbing passage in Mr. Woods's admirable description of Albania. It has reference to the resentment said to be entertained—for whatever cause—by the Albanians against the Greeks. While we are not prepared to admit that this ill-feeling exists, at least to the extent suggested by the author, there is nevertheless here a matter to which attention may profitably be directed. Greece has everything to gain and nothing to lose by the cultivation of friendly relations with the peoples who live just across her borders, especially when these are related to her by ties of kindred and are suffering from the same galling yoke as that which she herself once groaned under. Expediency, not less than justice, demands that every needless cause of irritation between the Greeks and Albanians shall be removed, and we trust that Greek statesmanship will see that this is done as speedily as possible.

The Atrocities in Cilicia.

From Turkey and the Albanian rising the author passes to the frightful massacres of Cilician Christians which took place some nine months after the inauguration of the new *régime* in Turkey. These formed the subject of an exhaustive review in our number for last May. Mr. Woods scouts the suggestion that Abdul Hamid was in any way responsible for the massacres, and declares his belief that the officials could have stopped them whenever they chose. Like most humane people, he is indignant at the lenient treatment accorded to those officials of the Young Turk Administration who, if not actually guilty of active participation in the massacres, at least connived at them. Djevad Bey, the Vali of Adana, is said to have secured comparative immunity from punishment by threatening that if he were molested by the Central Government he would publish documents compromising officials holding high office in the State; and regarding Remsi Pasha, the Military Commander who refused to suppress the outbreak, and was sentenced to three months' detention at Mersina, the book says:—

"So much consideration did this gentleman receive that, during his sojourn in Adana, before he was sent to Mersina, his Excellency was continually visited by Turks of all classes. On the day of Mustafa Remsi Pasha's departure for the sea-coast he was escorted to the station at Adana by Mehemet Ali Bey, the then commander of the troops in the city. The departure of this criminal from his former command, in the special first-class carriage always used on this line for distinguished visitors, seems to have been more like a hearty send-off for a general embarking upon a campaign than the retreat of a malefactor undergoing a sentence for his crime."

Whether it was the intention of the Turkish Government that this hideous travesty of justice should serve to *encourager les autres* or not, there is little doubt that this is the effect which it will actually produce.

Crete.

From the Adana massacres the author passes to the consideration of a problem which has taxed to the utmost the patience of the Great Powers, and will continue to tax them until it is settled in the only natural way—the problem of the future of Crete. The events which led up to the declaration of union with Greece are carefully detailed and examined, and the desire of the Cretans to become an integral part of the Hellenic Kingdom is shown to be simply what the Cretans had been encouraged to expect from the promises of the Protecting Powers. The justice and the expediency of gratifying the Cretan desire for union with Greece had never been denied; but the Cretans were always put off with the assurance that their claims could not be acknowledged without opening up the whole Eastern Question, and that was what the Protecting Powers were not prepared to do. The other Balkan States, it was pointed out, would also demand some counter-balancing compensation.

At length, in October, 1908, the Eastern Question was opened up by the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, and the declaration by Bulgaria of her independence. The Cretans now thought, quite justifiably, that the only remaining obstacles to union with Greece had been removed. So far as they were concerned, the stipulations of the Great Powers with regard to the good governance

of the island had been punctiliously complied with. As the author says:—

"I have only recalled to memory a few of the events which have occurred in recent Cretan history, and enumerated some of the actions of the European Concert, in order to prove, if certain conditions were fulfilled, that the Cretan people have undoubtedly been encouraged to expect the realisation of their national desire. By October, 1908, the most important stipulations set forth by the Powers in their Note of July 23, 1906, namely, that power and tranquillity should be restored, and that the gendarmerie and militia should be organised, had unquestionably been carried out. . . . By their Declaration [of Union with Greece] in reality the Cretans only assumed of right a situation which was already existent in fact."

Greece.

From Crete to Greece is not a far step, and Mr. Woods at once engages our attention with a careful and impartial account of the events which led up to what has been designated the Military Revolution of 1909. The share which the Military League played in the politics of the kingdom is traced up to the election of the Second Revisionary Chamber. The personnel and organisation of the Greek and Cretan military forces are treated at some length, and the discipline and soldier-like qualities of the rank and file evoke his warmest admiration.

But here, again, the author puts his finger upon a spot which, if his account of it be not exaggerated —and the book is conspicuously free from exaggeration—merits immediate and vigorous attention. The developments in modern military science are yearly rendering warfare more and more a matter of thorough training and exact scientific knowledge, and less and less a matter of dash or personal bravery. No army, however much inspired by patriotic devotion, can hope to survive if the brains which direct it are either badly equipped or insufficiently trained. All the great battles recently waged have pointed to the training of officers as the most vital point in the equipment of modern armies, and every State is devoting increasing attention to this subject as time progresses. In such an important particular Greece cannot afford to be lax or careless. Here is what Mr. Woods says:—

"The physique of the Greek soldier is good, his appearance is smart, and he possesses the national faculty of being able to assimilate rapidly what it is necessary for him to learn. But the efficiency of the gentlemen who fill the commissioned ranks of the Greek army leaves much to be desired. The officers are certainly less efficient than those over whom they are placed. From early morning till late at night the streets and *cafés* of Athens are filled with officers chatting to one another instead of perfecting their knowledge of the science of war, by which alone victories would be achieved should the misfortune of hostilities overtake the country."

But *The Danger Zone of Europe* is a book from which one is tempted to make extracts far in excess of what is permissible in a review, and we are compelled to dismiss the concluding sections upon Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Bosnia with a mere reference. The text is plentifully illustrated with many fine reproductions from photographs, among which that of the beautiful new cathedral at Sofia stands out pre-eminent, and there are several valuable maps.

There are a few errors in the text, but these are not of a nature to detract from the value of the information which the book conveys. A more legitimate cause of complaint is the total inadequacy of the index, which is represented by but four slender pages, while the publishers' advertisements run to over a hundred pages, and add to the weight and bulk of the book without much gain to the reader. These are defects which we hope to see remedied in future editions of the work, which are certain to be called for. Altogether *The Danger Zone of Europe* is a book not only to be read and enjoyed, but to be kept and studied for the intrinsic value of its information and the light it sheds upon one of the most difficult of present-day problems. H.

PRESS REVIEW.

FRIENDLY ADVICE TO TURKEY.

A considerable section of the more responsible Turkish Press has received the statements recently made in the House of Lords by Lord Crewe and Lord Lansdowne, with regard to the situation in Macedonia, in the spirit in which they were made—that is to say, as a grave but by no means unfriendly warning. We can assure the *Tanin* that there is certainly no desire in this country to interfere in the internal affairs of Turkey, but those who are most anxious to promote permanently friendly relations between Great Britain and Turkey are bound in accordance with their responsibility to call the attention of the powers that be at Constantinople to the deplorable effect which a reversion to the evil methods of Hamidianism would inevitably produce upon British public opinion. We believe that the Turkish Government itself desires to put an end to the methods of excessive severity which have unquestionably been practised by many of the local authorities in Macedonia in connection with the disarmament of the population, and it is officially intimated that the last of the courts-martial in Macedonia has now been removed. A commission of inquiry is also, we understand, about to investigate on the spot the worst cases of alleged harshness and cruelty, and will, we trust, not hesitate to see that justice is done. The Young Turks, who suffered so heavily under the old régime, should be the first to see how disastrous Abdul Hamid's policy towards the subject races ultimately proved to be to the best interests of the Ottoman Empire, and how powerless was even Germany's unfailing support to save him from its inevitable consequences. It is a curious and very inevitable coincidence that at the very moment when some of the most eminent German divines have been paying a visit to this country in order to preach a better understanding between Germany and Great Britain in the higher interests of Christianity and civilisation, the chauvinist newspapers of Constantinople should have been goaded on by the *Osmanischer Lloyd*, the leading German organ in that city, to a violent campaign against Mr. Noel Buxton and his friends of the Balkan Committee. And for what reason? Simply, it would appear, because they, too, felt it their duty, in the higher interests of Christianity and civilisation, to warn the Young Turks whose cause they had so warmly espoused after the revolution against the dangers of the same suicidal policy, which, though it may have served the material and temporary interests of Germany, brought Abdul Hamid to ruin.

The Times.

TURKEY'S OBLIGATIONS TO THE POWERS.

The Powers, in order to encourage the supposed new system, agreed to withdraw the European officers from Macedonia. Great Britain especially welcomed the prospect of a reformed Turkey, of a Turkey in which all Turkish subjects were to be given security for life and property, and a law the same for all. But the first elections to the Parliament showed that the movement was in reality a movement to restore

the Turkish ascendancy in Turkey, which means for European Turkey, where there are very few Turks by racial descent, for the Moslem element of the population. Since then the Turkish Army has been freely used in Macedonia, Albania, and elsewhere for a process described as "disarmament," which is reported to admit of being described as "devastation," while the terrible massacres at Adana, of which many Europeans and Americans, including a British Military Consul, were witnesses, do not appear to have been discouraged nor the officials who supervised them punished by the Government of the Young Turks. What all this means is that the ideas which induced the British Government to give its countenance and diplomatic support to the Turkish Government have been rejected by the Turks, who have assumed that the British sympathies were given to them to support them in the very same courses which estranged British sympathies from Abdul Hamid. What the Earl of Crewe said on Monday in reply to the Marquis of Lansdowne was: "We all hope that the Turkish Government will recognise the responsibility which they have for the fair treatment of all races and creeds." In other words, both British parties hope that the Turkish Government will abide by the spirit of the Constitution which it has proclaimed and of the declarations which it has made.

This hope, expressed in the most friendly terms, in view of the report quoted from the proceedings of the Turkish Parliament to the effect that in Macedonia hundreds of persons had been beaten, some to permanent disablement and some to death, has been received by the Young Turk newspapers with a storm of abuse, and by the Turkish Foreign Minister with expressions of astonishment. What effect does the Turkish Foreign Minister expect his words, which will be read alongside the less reserved language of the Turkish newspapers, to produce on both parties in England and on Sir Edward Grey? We cannot imagine. But it is easy to explain for the benefit of the Turkish Foreign Minister the effect that his words will in fact produce. They will recall in the minds of the English observers the words of the late Marquis of Salisbury, who after his vigorous support of the Turks in 1878 to 1880 said towards the close of his life that it seemed that in those days Great Britain had "backed the wrong horse." But Sir Edward Grey and Lord Lansdowne will reflect that they have tried to combine the policy that aims at the welfare of the inhabitants of Turkey and that which aims at the maintenance of British interests. They may now begin to consider that both aims have been sacrificed to the desire to help the Young Turks and the new *régime*, and they inquire what the new *régime* has done either for the good of the population of Turkey, Moslem, Greek, Armenian, or Slav, and what effort it has made—we will not say to promote British interests, which they have never been asked or expected to do, but to avoid needlessly embarrassing Great Britain even in her efforts to be of use to Turkey? The answer to these questions must decidedly affect the future course of British policy. *Morning Post.*

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NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE.

ASSETS, 31st October, 1910.	30th Oct., 1910. * Drachmae.		31st Sept., 1910. * Drachmae	
Funds: Cash	3,503,478	07	3,524,865	72
Funds: Ionian Bank, Bonds	506,345	—	356,680	—
Funds: Ditto, of one or two Drachmae	1,159,614	—	1,057,188	—
In Foreign Banks: Gold	40,508,361	52	43,580,591	74
In Foreign Banks: Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	160,357	83	173,713	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds: in gold ... Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper ... Dr. 34,617,201.25	60,554,292	50	60,630,910	50
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,440,000	—	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,150,903	82	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	21,273,213	37	21,394,815	23
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,541,762	21	3,519,040	81
Advances on Securities	23,034,855	27	23,508,951	15
Advances on Merchandise	6,227,775	11	4,553,302	92
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	70,378,948	34	72,421,044	26
Loans to Communities, Harbours, and other legal bodies	46,181,948	83	46,264,436	98
*Agricultural Drafts	11,912,143	75	13,006,033	75
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,616,441	90	5,566,492	35
Shares in Local Companies	7,471,158	20	7,471,158	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds: Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece; Bank Bonds at 2½%	728,182	35	733,874	76
Bank and Premises	2,246,440	94	9,267,702	77
*Doubtful Debts	3,526,210	11	3,499,776	75
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,394.002	11	1,389,140	41
Sundry Accounts	2,574,379	37	2,373,619	64
Sundry Foreign Accounts	5,881,597	24	2,197,096	88
Redemption of State Participation in the Profits of the Bank	1,075,200	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	560,100	—	560,000	—
Commission for Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in Bank Bonds	50,000		50,000	—
Sundries	822,146	25	684,997	96
Dr.	407,307,84	49	408,230,112	84

LIABILITIES.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank Dr. 49,820,329.73	124,291,017	22	125,305,490	34
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	9,547,315	36	11,964,352	16
Deposits without Interest	19,691,782	95	21,069,671	56
Demand Notes	1,608,729	25	1,491,208	41
Unclaimed Dividends	228,430	—	284,035	—
International Financial Control: A/c of payment of Revenues affected; Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes Dr. 4,282,520.64	4,477,717	77	1,874,092	16
Service of the State Loans—Gold	640,396	80	705,659	05
Ditto, in Bank Notes	306,431	22	372,560	37
State Deposits—Gold	4,808	39	4,808	39
Ditto, Bank Notes	15,062	65	15,062	65
State Deposits: For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway ... Gold ... Notes	160,357	83	173,713	83
Deposits at Interest	1,527	21	59,996	21
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%	119,098,362	26	118,799,336	18
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes at 2½%	40,574,160	—	40,571,160	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	20,367,900	—	20,367,900	—
Ditto, Bank Notes at 2½%	1,495,698	—	1,727,474	—
Savings Bank	267,345	—	280,142	50
Bills to be paid	13,418,013	18	13,275,501	83
Sundries	7,263,061	40	6,624,948	20
Dr.	407,307,846	49	408,230,112	84

* At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachma is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant,
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

Athens, 10th Nov., 1910.

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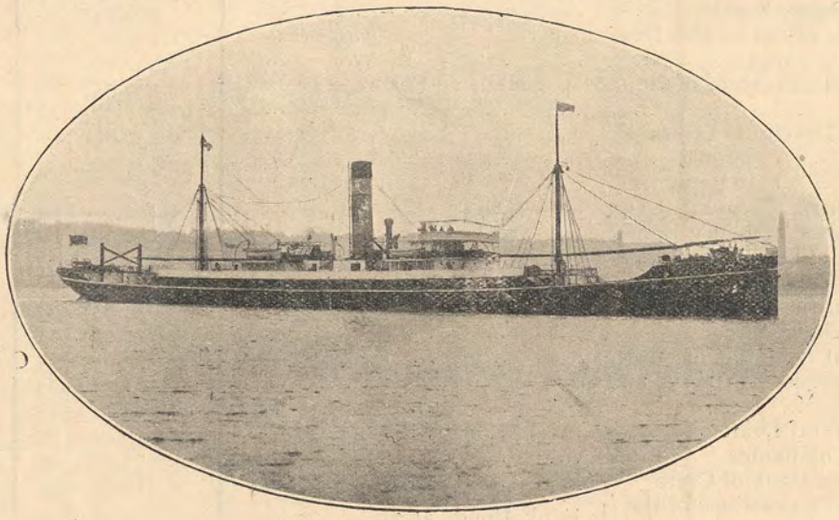

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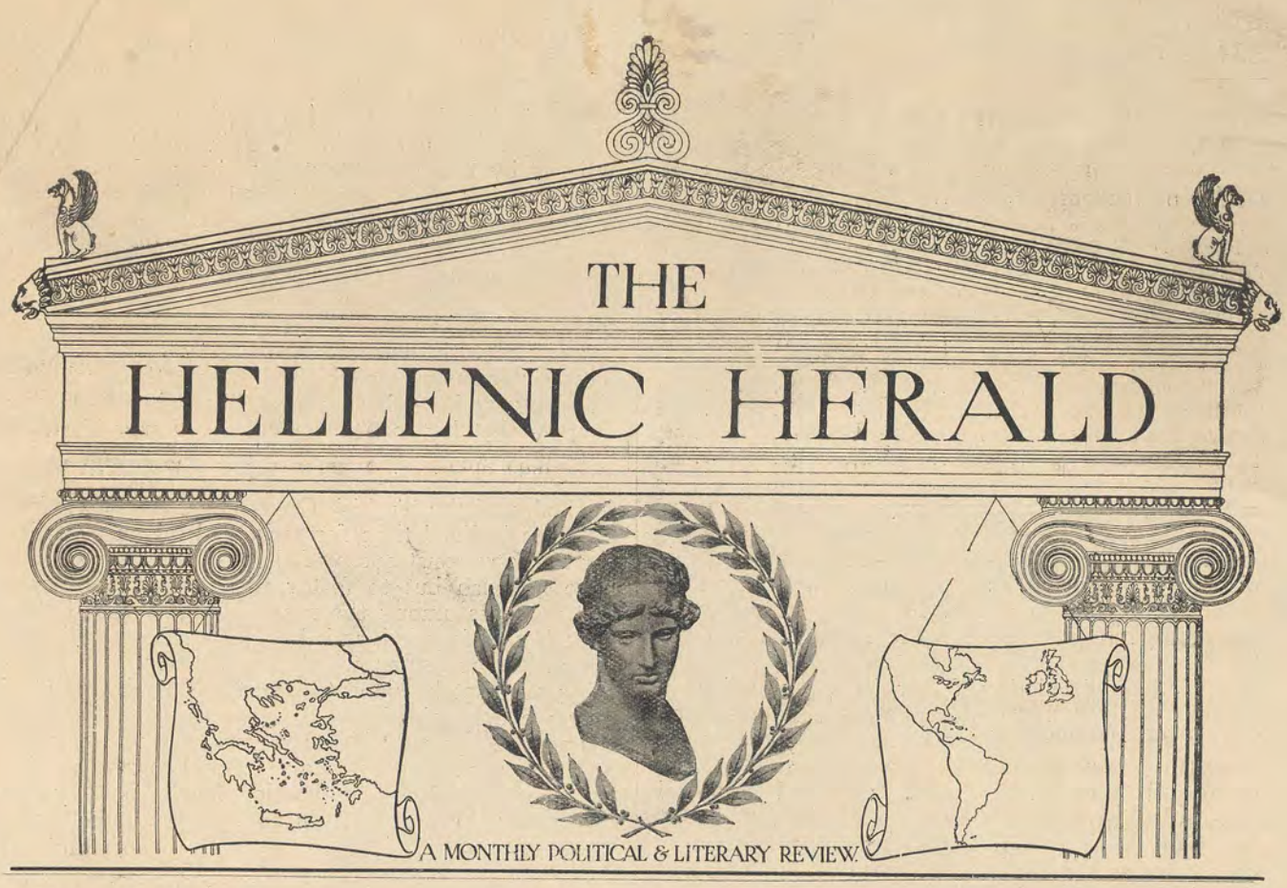

VOL. V., No. 50. FEBRUARY, 1911. [Price 10/- per Annum Post Free.

THE ALBANIAN PERIL.

THE most disquieting features in the Near Eastern situation, at the present moment, are the preparations which are being made in Albania for a renewal of hostilities in the spring. These are being organised upon a scale which, if it affords any indication of the purposes of those responsible for them, promises to bring about something like a conflagration in the Balkans. That plenty of highly inflammable material exists on the spot there is no manner of doubt. The very unsatisfactory condition of Macedonia, besides producing a hostile attitude towards the Government among the Christians in that province, occasions much unrest among the neighbouring States, notably Bulgaria and Greece. This discontent has been augmented of late by a large number of unfortunate incidents which have occurred on the frontiers of both Bulgaria and of Greece.

A movement of a still more menacing character is the insurrection among the tribes in Arabia. This revolt appears at present to be declining in strength. The situation, however, is still full of dangerous possibilities, and if carelessly handled—especially should news of the unrest in other quarters circulate among the revolting Arabs—may easily develop into a highly perilous one.

The discontent in Albania first assumed an aspect of importance during last autumn. The imposition of fresh taxation and the barbarous manner in which the disarmament law was applied produced at that time a widespread feeling of discontent, especially among the Northern Albanians, which developed into open resistance. An army of 50,000 soldiers, which was immediately drafted into the disturbed districts, quelled with some difficulty the open manifestations of discontent, but no effort whatever was made to deal with the underlying causes of the revolt. A spirit of bitterness towards the Government has in consequence been generated among the Albanians which was undreamt of before. The custom of wiping out insult or injury by an act of vengeance is a traditional one in Albania, and the spirit of revenge has prompted the people to prepare for a new struggle with the Government upon a more extensive scale than before.

An unfortunate incident which happened in the Turkish Parliament about this time served to deepen greatly the feeling of injury cherished by the Albanians. Ismail Kemal Bey, the well-known Albanian leader, criticising the dealings of some of the Young Turk leaders in connection with the Bagdad railway, threw out a suggestion that some of them had derived pecuniary benefits from the railway negotiations. This evoked a good deal of resentment in the Chamber, and the Grand Vizier rushed towards Kemal Bey in a threatening attitude. He did not strike the speaker, however, and the incident might have passed off without further trouble had not Dervish Bey, a friend of the Grand Vizier, come behind Kemal Bey and struck him a blow upon the head. Immediately the other Albanian deputies rushed forward to defend their colleague, and a fierce uproar took place in the Chamber, which was only quelled by the coolness and self-possession of Kemal Bey himself.

Although explanations were afterwards made

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and a reconciliation effected between the parties, this incident has created a profound impression in Albania, and helped not a little to precipitate the impending struggle between the Albanians and the Turks.

Another disquieting factor in the situation in Albania is the rumoured intention of the son of General Garibaldi to raise a band of volunteers with which to proceed to Albania and lead the people against the Turks. This intention of General Ricciotti Garibaldi, if carried into effect, will not only lend a fresh impetus to the insurrectionary movement and make its peaceful solution more difficult, but may give rise to international complications which will have a far-reaching result. All these considerations make it imperative that Turkey should seriously and at once consider the best means of dealing tactfully with the situation. The Great Powers, also, should endeavour to persuade the parties concerned to come to an agreement, by making mutual concessions, before international complications arise to endanger the peace of Europe.

It is said that the Turkish Government has some intention of conciliating the Albanians, and that arrangements are being made for the Sultan to visit the country at an early date. Although this may produce some softening effect upon the Albanians, it is doubtful whether it will fulfil the purpose it is intended to serve. The grievances of the Albanians are too deep-seated to be removed by mere verbal expressions of goodwill, and the memory of the excesses of the Young Turk governor, Djevad Bey, who dispersed meetings with artillery and burnt whole towns on the mere suspicion of their having harboured rebels, cannot be obliterated by mere spectacular display.

The Albanian unrest will only be calmed when the grievances which underlie it have been removed. These are sufficiently well known not to require much elaboration, but an enumeration of some of the principal may not be out of place. There is, first of all, the imposition of additional taxation, which the Albanians declare is intended chiefly for military purposes, and, consequently, for their own repression. Then there are the systematic endeavours of the Young Turks to stamp out the Albanian language by discouraging and even prohibiting its use in the schools of Albania, both public establishments and those maintained by private funds. Again, the Albanians ask that even-handed justice shall be administered in the law-courts, a demand that should not require to be formulated in a constitutional country; and they also require much more widely extended powers of self-government. The urgent need of this latter reform will be apparent when it is mentioned that of all the money contributed in taxation by the Albanians since the inauguration of the new *régime* not a penny has been devoted to the construction of public works in Albania.

It is by the removal of grievances such as these that the unrest in Albania will be allayed, and not by harsh and brutal methods of repression or by closing down schools and printing presses. Indeed, since the Young Turks stopped all the presses in Albania the spirit of revolt has been distinctly intensified. What the Young Turks should do is to lay aside their policy of Chauvinism and centralisation, and proceed to govern more in accordance with the expressed desires of the people. This course has been advocated by us in these columns all along, and we have repeatedly pointed out the dangers that lay in the way of the Young Turks if they adhered to their original course of policy. These prognostications are now, unfortunately, being fulfilled, and the Turkish Government may therefore be more inclined than formerly to lend an attentive ear to the remonstrances of those who, like ourselves, have no wish but to foster the blessings of peace and progress among the races of Turkey. If this hope is well-founded, and the Young Turks will take the proper measures with sufficient rapidity, something may yet be done to avert a calamity. But if they are determined not to depart from their old courses we can only look forward to a prolongation of that wretched chaos of abuses and reprisals which has so long hindered the development of Turkey and threatened the peace of Europe.

FREEDOM OF CONSCIENCE IN TURKEY.

Amid the chaos of blunders and worse that characterises the new régime in Turkey there appear one or two bright spots to which we are glad to direct public attention. One of these is the tardy recognition by the Government of a body of Christians who have for centuries been unable openly to declare their religious belief. These Christians are the Stavriotes, who inhabit the region of Ak-dag, on the borders of the Black Sea. By persecution, renewed again and again, they had been constrained to profess themselves Mohammedans, in public at least, and, although many efforts were made, through the medium of the Œcumenical Patriarch, to persuade the Turkish Government to grant the Stavriotes freedom of conscience, their petitions were always refused. All this time the Stavriotes clung tenaciously to their old faith. Although compelled to bear Mohammedan names, they remained believers in Christ, and, while forced to attend the mosque publicly, they continued to celebrate the Christian rites secretly in underground chambers.

In several parts of the Turkish Empire similar instances of Christians being compelled to appear publicly as Mohammedans have existed for a long time. The first of these bodies to receive recognition from the Turkish Government were certain inhabitants of the Sporades Islands, about the year 1828. The next recognition took place in 1857, when a portion of the inhabitants of Chaldia, Kromne, and Matzouka were allowed to profess their true religious beliefs. Ten years afterwards those living in the island of Ko were permitted by a liberal-minded governor to follow their religious convictions without the Government being asked to intervene at all. And now the Stavriotes, who are the last to be accorded their religious freedom, have been permitted to worship according to their consciences.

By this act of tardy justice the Young Turks have not only gone a long way to conciliate Christian opinion within the Turkish Empire, but to induce

the Christian nations of the world to regard their administration with more benevolence than hitherto. The benefits which the Young Turks have conferred upon a single section of the population of Turkey will therefore return to themselves with interest. Though it is after all but an act of bare justice, and merely consonant with the enlightened principles of the twentieth century, to allow freedom of conscience to the inhabitants of a constitutional country, yet reforms have always come so tardily in the Turkish Empire that we hail the new departure with the greater satisfaction in that it was quite unexpected. We hope that this spirit will continue to be evinced by the present rulers of Turkey, not only in the interests of the sufferers, but in the interests of the Turks themselves, as well as on the broader grounds of humanity and civilisation.

A FRIEND OF GREECE.

SIR CHARLES WENTWORTH DILKE.

(Born 24 Sept. 1843. Died 26 Jan. 1911.)

It is with sincere regret that we chronicle the death of Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke. By his demise the British Parliament has lost one of its ablest members, humanity an earnest advocate, and Greece a sincere and consistent friend.

Sir Charles Dilke was born in London in the year 1843. After an exceptionally brilliant school and University career he made his appearance in public life as member of Parliament for Chelsea in 1868. His extraordinary ability as a statesman was quickly recognised in the House of Commons, and he was selected to fill a succession of important administrative posts. In 1880 he was appointed by Mr. Gladstone to be Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, and in 1882 he became a member of the Cabinet as President of the Local Government Board. The following year he was Chairman of the Royal Commission on the Housing of the Working Classes, among his fellow-members being the late King Edward (then Prince of Wales), Lord Salisbury, and Cardinal Manning. He was also Chairman of the Commission for Negotiations with France, and, at a later period, Chairman of the Select Committee on Income-tax. At the time of his death Sir Charles represented the Forest of Dean, having held that seat for nineteen years.

The spell of Hellas was cast over Sir Charles Dilke at a very early age. There is little doubt that the inspiration he received from Greek sources exerted a considerable amount of influence upon his career, and had not a little to do with developing in him those peculiar qualities to which he owed much of his eminence. As a schoolboy he displayed a deep interest in Greek literature and Greek art, and, when a young man, could express himself in Greek with a facility seldom acquired by an Englishman. In the last manuscript that came from his pen the influence of these early studies is clearly observable in the Greek modelling of his handwriting.

This early devotion to Greek culture bred in Sir Charles Dilke an admiration which, at a maturer age, deepened into sincere and lasting friendship for Greece and her people. When Sir Charles became a power in British politics this friendship was expressed in a long series of efforts, often attended with considerable success, to persuade British statesmen to throw all the weight of their influence upon the side of Greece in the deliberations of the Great Powers, so that her rights as a nation might be properly recognised. The definite assistance accorded by British statesmanship to Greece at many critical points in her later history is to be traced to this influence, either directly or indirectly. This was notably the case in the negotiations conducted between the Great Powers with reference to the Near Eastern troubles, also during the struggles of the Cretan people for union with their Greek kindred, and—at what was perhaps the most important juncture of all—during the international negotiations which ended in the annexation of Thessaly to Greece. This benevolent influence had again to be exercised at the close of the last war with Turkey, when Greece was threatened with dismemberment by being once more deprived of Thessaly, and was saved from this fate chiefly owing to the uncompromising attitude of the British Government.

Amid all the pressure of public duties Sir Charles found time for authorship, and wrote upon a wide variety of subjects with knowledge and conviction. He was a capable art critic, having in his younger days taken a Queen's Prize for art subjects at South Kensington. On Modern History he was a leading authority, and his marvellous stores of information not infrequently enabled him to present a view of some important historical episode which completely reversed public opinion upon the subject. His knowledge of remote lands, derived from books, was so accurate and extensive that explorers sometimes refused to believe that Sir Charles had not himself visited the countries which he described so vividly.

It was, however, in the domain of British Imperial politics that Sir Charles Dilke achieved his greatest literary successes. His *Greater Britain* is stated by competent authorities to have done more to awaken the sense of Imperial responsibility in England than any other single book ever published, and *Imperial Defence*, written in collaboration with Mr. H. Spenser Wilkinson, is admitted to be the best work of reference upon that difficult subject.

In all these branches of literary activity the pen of Sir Charles Dilke was ever ready to plead for or to defend the country whose art and literature he had learned to revere. Not content with championing the cause of Greece in the British Parliament, he advocated the recognition of her rights in a multitude of publications where his influence and ability secured him a hearing. In his own journals and those over which he exercised control no harsh criticism of Greece was ever permitted to appear; and when any unfavourable reference to her managed to elude the editors Sir Charles's note, scribbled on the margin of the proof—"The Greeks will not like this"—was sufficient to procure its deletion. One of the last productions that came from his pen was an eloquent introduction to a work dealing with the rights of Crete, which we understand is at present in course of publication.

It is not improbable that Sir Charles Dilke's admiration for Greece fostered in him some of the characteristics of the race whom he admired. Besides a deep and abiding love of art for art's sake, and that passionate devotion to scholarship which was his outstanding characteristic, he entertained all the veneration of the ancient Greeks for the perfect human form. "Tout savant est un peu cadavre" is a well-known French proverb. But Sir Charles Dilke, though a *savant* to his finger-tips, was not a whit cadaverous. On the contrary, he had trained his physical powers to a high degree of excellence, and presented a splendid example of vigorous and completely developed manhood. He

was one of the finest swordsmen of his time, and, when long past the age of sixty, kept up his rowing practice, in which branch of athletics he had achieved notable distinction in his college days. The ideal of the sound mind in a sound body was fully realised by Sir Charles Dilke in his own person

Besides uniting in himself diverse qualities which are seldom found associated in the same individual—profound and exact scholarship subsisting side by side with a keen grasp of practical affairs; enthusiasm for art combined with devotion to sport in its manliest forms—Sir Charles Dilke possessed an ardent love of humanity. His championship of Greece and defence of her people was simply one channel through which his humanitarianism found suitable expression. The sufferings of the Cretan people during the periods of cruel Turkish repression, and the terrible atrocities perpetrated upon Greeks, either among the mountains of Macedonia or on the plains of Cilicia, were not the only objects that evoked his sympathy. Whenever a cry for help arose from oppressed peoples in any part of the world it found a ready response in his heart. Through the medium of Sir Charles Dilke it would be transmitted to the House of Commons, and later voiced by British diplomatists, whose remonstrances were listened to with respect, because if necessity arose they could be supported by British cannon.

The humanitarian spirit of Sir Charles Dilke was manifested at home in his untiring advocacy of measures for securing better social conditions for the labouring population. Though the proper housing of the working classes and the reduction of child labour were matters that claimed his especial support, his interest ranged over the whole programme of social reform. His solicitude for the welfare of the workers found expression in numberless ways, both public and private, and the labouring classes of Great Britain have good reason to cherish the memory of their benefactor with feelings of gratitude.

"As long as I am any use to others I must work," said Sir Charles upon one occasion, and this principle animated him to the close of his life. Towards the end of 1910 his health began to fail, and he consented reluctantly to spend a few weeks in the South of France in order to try and recover it. It was too late, however, and he returned home to die. Even in this extremity he did not cease from work, for a friend who called to see him on his death-bed found him engaged in the revision of a pile of Blue Books and statistical returns which had been sent while he was away. In the words of one who knew Sir Charles well, his was "a noble, industrious, and well-spent life, memorable in literature, art, and social progress."

To Greece the loss will come at this juncture with peculiar emphasis. There has been more than one attempt in recent years to force a quarrel upon her, and entice her into strife for which she has no liking, and which would only end in disaster for her. At such times her friends have stood by her, and the sinister designs of the mischief-makers have been frustrated. But there is no guarantee that these will not be renewed at any time, and Greece may need her friends' help again. There is no doubt that she will receive it. The debt which European civilisation owes to the ennobling influence of Greek culture and Greek ideals is repaid by the warm friendship of many able and distinguished men. But the place amongst these once occupied by Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke will be a difficult one to fill. H.

THE HOUSE OF LORDS AND TURKISH POLICY.

The criticisms which we have felt obliged in these columns to direct from time to time upon the policy of the Young Turks received ample confirmation in the Upper Chamber of the British Parliament during the debate upon the Address from the Throne. Lord Lansdowne put an interrogation and received an answer from Lord Crewe, the representative of the Government, which not only prove that the methods of the Turkish Government are unconstitutional and tyrannical, but that the generous traditions of the British people, despite the blunting influence of commercial interests, are as vigorous to-day as ever. The terms of both question and reply are set out in the appended report, and will serve to convince the reader that unconstitutional proceedings must have been carried to extraordinary lengths in Turkey to merit an exposure so severe in quarters usually reticent and dignified.

Lord Lansdowne.

May I say one word upon another foreign question which is not mentioned in the gracious Speech from the Throne? There have been during the last few days very disquieting reports in regard to Macedonia. An operation described as disarmament is in progress in that most long-suffering corner of the world. An army which has lately been employed in Albania under a general who appears to be a soldier of a very strenuous description has now visited Macedonia, and it is reported that the disarmament is being carried out in circumstances of very great barbarity and in a very partial manner. It is said that a Turkish Member of Parliament assured his audience that in the three districts of Salonika, Monastir, and Uskub no fewer than 4,000 persons had been maltreated, of whom 61 had been permanently disabled and 11 beaten to death. I do not know whether his Majesty's Government are aware of these occurrences; but I do trust we shall hear that they are being watched with a vigilant eye; and we cannot be surprised that the comment on them should be that confidence in the new Constitutional system has been gravely shattered in Turkey.

Lord Crewe.

The noble marquis asked me a question with regard to the state of affairs in Macedonia. I can assure him that my right hon. friend and his Department will not fail to watch most carefully all the accounts which they receive of what is happening there. Nor, I think, shall I be wrong in saying that I am quite certain that if opportunity occurs, my right hon. friend will not fail to convey to the Turkish Government the feelings of pain with which public opinion in this country must receive reports of the kind which the noble marquis has mentioned—assuming, of course, that those reports are well founded. We all, I am sure, hope that the Turkish Government will recognise the responsibility which they have for the fair treatment of all races and creeds in that part of the Empire over which the Sultan rules.

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THE PAN-HELLENIC UNION OF AMERICA.

APPEAL TO PRESIDENT TAFT.

In our last number we gave a report of a large and enthusiastic meeting held in Boston in defence of the rights of Crete. At that meeting a resolution was passed and directed to be forwarded to the President of the United States. We now reproduce the text of the covering letter which was forwarded along with the resolutions to President Taft by the Chairman of the meeting, as well as the complete wording of the resolutions themselves.

HON. WILLIAM TAFT,
President of the United States,
Washington, D.C.

MR. PRESIDENT,—I have the honour to enclose herewith a copy of the resolutions in favour of Crete, adopted in Faneuil Hall on February 17, 1911, at a mass meeting held under the auspices of the Pan-Hellenic Union.

The struggle for freedom of that island is of long standing, and the sympathy and interest shown by the people of the United States for the Cretans are too well known to need any comment on my part.

This interest was attested by the resolutions adopted by Congress in July, 1868, and the aid given at that time by the people of this country to the unfortunate Cretan refugees and to their sick and disabled warriors.

Therefore the suggestion of mediation referred to in the resolutions adopted in Faneuil Hall, far from being a departure from precedent, is in accordance with the expressed wish of Congress in 1868.

Nor is the Monroe Doctrine contrary to the offer of good offices in European politics. On the contrary, in that memorable message, Mr. Monroe, referring to the then forcible intervention in Spain by France—as mandatory of the Allied Powers—said, "To what extent such intervention may be carried is a question which interests also even a Power so remote like the United States."

May I, therefore, venture to hope that you will kindly offer your good offices to the European Powers, urging the speedy and final settlement of the Cretan question—which is a perennial source of trouble in the Near East—in accordance with the wishes, aspirations and hopes of the gallant inhabitants of that historical island?

Yours very respectfully,
THEODORE P. ION,
President, Pan-Hellenic Union.

RESOLUTIONS.

Whereas the historical Island of Crete in the Mediterranean has been from time immemorial and still is Greek in race, traditions, language and national aspirations;

Whereas her long, gallant, and at times single-handed fight against the Turks, her last conquerors, has won the applause of the civilised world;

Whereas in view of the enormous sacrifices, both in blood and property, sustained by its Greek inhabitants during the whole course of the nineteenth century, Europe had, at last, decided to favour the realisation of the long cherished wish of the Cretans, and gave to the King of Greece the right to nominate the High Commissioner of the Island;

Whereas in consequence of such action of the four Protecting Powers, namely, England, France, Russia, and Italy, the rights of the Sultan—if there were any left—were only nominal, being called suzerain and lastly supreme;

Whereas after the recent declaration of union with Greece by the Cretan Assembly, the Protecting Powers have notified the Cretan Executive Committee that they would favourably consider such union;

Whereas the Powers, now forgetful of their promises to the Cretans, recently notified Turkey that they would preserve her "sovereign rights" in the island, and would also consider at a future time the manner of its administration;

Whereas this was a wanton violation of their repeated pledges to the Cretans and an intention on their part to bring Crete again under actual Turkish rule;

Whereas the existence of any rights, be they sovereign, suzerain, or supreme, would probably encourage Turkey to renew her experiment, which succeeded in the island of Samos, another Greek island whose autonomy had been guaranteed by some of the European Powers;

Whereas as long as there remains any vestige of international treaty that no Turkish troops shall be stationed in Samos, Turkey has violated it by military occupation of the island;

Whereas, as long as there remains any vestige of Ottoman rule in Crete the Porte will likely repeat the experiment of Samos;

Whereas the unsettled condition of the Cretan question is likely to result in serious troubles and bloodshed in the Near East;

Whereas it is just and right that the European Powers should fulfil their promises to the Cretans by ratifying the act of union of the Island with Greece;

Be it therefore

Resolved, by the citizens of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts and others in the Faneuil Hall assembled,

That we urge the President of the United States to offer his mediation in case any attempt is made to coerce the Cretans to accept Turkish rule.

GREEK DEPUTIES FROM ABROAD.

One of the most encouraging features in the reform movement in Greece is the keen interest displayed in the work of the National Assembly by Greeks living abroad and the active share which some of them are taking in it.

Deputies have been elected to the National Assembly from the Greek colonies in England and Egypt. The two deputies from Egypt are Mr. E. Benachi and Mr. G. Zervoudakis, whose numerous and munificent benefactions to Greek public institutions have evoked feelings of respect and esteem among Greeks everywhere. Soon after his election Mr. Benachi was appointed Minister of Commerce, and his business sagacity and devotion to national interests have already produced an excellent result in that department.

The deputy from England is Mr. G. Zochonis, who is well known in business circles in Manchester. The liberality of Mr. Zochonis to national objects and his deep interest in all that concerns the welfare of the Kingdom entitle him to a high place of honour among his compatriots.

The honour of being elected to the National Assembly is one that is likely to entail upon Mr. Zochonis some sacrifice, seeing that while he is engaged in legislating for Greece the management of his great business in Manchester will have to be delegated to other hands. But no one who knows Mr. Zochonis will doubt that such a sacrifice will be cheerfully made. His decision to participate in political work was prompted solely by the knowledge that at the present critical juncture Greece requires the services of her ablest and most experienced men, wherever residing. And with Mr. Zochonis the interests of Greece have ever taken precedence over all others. The whole-hearted devotion of such as he cannot fail to produce that result which all good Greeks desire—the thorough regeneration of the kingdom, and her entrance upon the path that leads to peace, national honour, and prosperity.

A SLANDER REFUTED.

In reply to a passage which appeared in a recent number of the "Times" reflecting adversely upon the character of the Greeks resident in England, the Greek Consul-General in London, Mr. John Stavridi, addressed to that paper a very able and incisive remonstrance. His letter not only refutes absolutely the false suggestion conveyed by the writer in the "Times," but demonstrates conclusively that the Greeks are among the best of all those elements which come from other countries to seek a home in Great Britain.

The text of Mr. Stavridi's letter as it appeared in the "Times" is as follows:—

GREECE AND THE ALIENS QUESTION.

(To the Editor of the *Times*.)

SIR,—As one has come to look upon any statement made by the *Times* as the very acme of truth, the last sentence in your leader of the 5th inst., in regard to the Stepney incident and aliens in England, caused me the utmost astonishment. The sentence is as follows:—

> We should hope, too, that the Governments of the countries from which the undesirables chiefly come—in recent days, Turkey, Greece, Russia, and Italy—may be induced to realise their responsibility.

As regards Greece this statement was, to my personal knowledge, so contrary to the truth that I took some trouble to ascertain whether it was possible that you had in your possession private information that had not been vouchsafed me. I communicated this extract from your leader and my own opinion on the question to the Commissioners of the Metropolitan and City Police, and asked for a statement of their experience in the matter. The latter replied immediately as follows:—

> We have few aliens residing in the City, and, therefore, though personally I agree in the conclusion you draw, I cannot officially confirm it.

Sir Edward Henry, on the other hand, took time to look into the matter, and he now authorises me to state that he had his own definite opinion upon the point, but before replying to me thought it well to consult his officers in charge of districts inhabited by Greeks, and he was glad to obtain confirmation of his own view that the Greeks in London are as a body law-abiding citizens.

I can therefore only imagine that your leader-writer had gathered his information from a perfunctory perusal of the fourth annual report of his Majesty's Inspector under the Aliens Act. It is true that on page 8 of this report the Inspector states that 1,347 persons were refused liberty to land in England, "divided amongst the following nationalities:—Greeks and Ottomans, 398; Russians, 296; Italians, 268. . . ."

This seems to give colour to your statement, but if your leader-writer had read a few lines further on he would have found that the Inspector goes on to say:—

> The fact that 398 aliens classified under the heading of Greeks and Ottomans—an increase of over 300 upon the number for 1908—were refused leave to land during the year calls for some comment. Practically the whole of these 398 were Armenians and Syrians who were on their way to America. . . .

I need hardly point out to you that neither Armenians nor Syrians are Greeks. There is no doubt that the Inspector's classification of Greeks and Ottomans in one group, however convenient for the purpose of his report, is one that may work injustice to the Greeks, as is clearly proved by your own leader.

I should like to point out in conclusion that, apart from two distressing cases of sailors working on English ships who became mentally deranged, there are no cases of Greek subjects mentioned as having been relieved by the Poor Law and none that have come on to the rates. As regards aliens convicted in England, I believe that I am right in saying that the number of Greek subjects convicted for misdemeanour or felony during the last two years could be counted on the fingers of one hand. This, surely, is a record of which any foreign community in England might well be proud.

In view of the false impression created by your statement I trust that you will see your way to give publicity to this rectification.

I am, sir, yours obediently,

I. J. STAVRIDI,
Consul-General for Greece.

40, Old Broad Street, E.C.,
January 31.

THE PICTORIAL ART OF GREECE.

I.—PRELIMINARY.

Although the claim of Greece to pre-eminence in the art of sculpture has never been seriously challenged, it rests on a basis actually less substantial than her right to be regarded as the creator of the art of painting. In sculpture the genius of the Greeks had only to perfect the results attained by Eastern nations like the Egyptians and Assyrians. In painting the Greeks struck out a line for themselves, and, following it to its natural conclusion, achieved nothing short of a revolution. This result was not attained all at once. The pictorial art of Greece had its crude and infantile beginnings which gave little promise of the harvest that was to follow. The rate of progress was slow. Many false steps had to be retraced, and many difficulties overcome. But the natural instinct of the Greek people for true art surmounted every obstacle, and when, in the fourth century before the Christian era, Apelles rose to eminence, painting as an art had been carried in Greece to a perfection which it never attained before.

The supremacy of the artists of ancient Greece is plentifully attested by contemporary writers. In prose and verse such painters as Polygnotus, Zeuxis, and Apelles are as much extolled as the sculptors Myron, Pheidias, and Praxiteles. Indeed, artists are often spoken of in terms of higher praise than their brethren of the chisel. The elder Pliny, for instance, in his treatise upon ancient art, devotes a good deal of space to the painters Zeuxis, Apelles, and Parrhasios, though he dismisses such eminent sculptors as Pheidias and Praxiteles in very few words. There is little doubt that the reason why the painters of ancient Greece have not received their due reward of praise in later times is because of the perishable nature of the materials in which they worked. Although classical literature teems with allusions to the marvellous excellence of their productions, not a single specimen of their art has been handed down to our times. While we can judge of the achievements of Greek sculptors from actual specimens, or at least creditable copies, of their work, executed in the same medium as the original, we are obliged to form a conception of the genius of the great Greek painters from house decorations and pottery. It is true that these wall and vase paintings were sometimes executed by workmen whose skill occasionally approached real art; but the awkwardness of position entailed upon the artist while engaged in painting on walls and pottery, the clumsy

and coarse media which had to be employed, and the limitations of form and space were such as to make it impossible to produce anything like a faithful copy of any great picture.

Of the remains of ancient Greek paintings which have descended to us by far the greater number are borne upon pottery. Paintings upon wood, skin, or cloth, if they ever existed, have disappeared entirely from our knowledge. Even where the material which bore the painting has been preserved, the colours have in most cases so nearly vanished as to leave but the faintest trace of an outline. The Naples Museum contains several marble slabs bearing drawings in red lines which are among the finest that have descended to us from antiquity. On the most beautiful of these an Athenian artist called Alexandros has signed his name. At first the designs on these slabs were regarded as mere drawings and not pictures, but a similar slab was later discovered which exhibited within almost identical red outlines the remains of an exquisitely beautiful painting in colours. It was therefore clear that what had been regarded as drawings were only the remains of completed pictures. The colours of the last picture have almost disappeared in the short time that it has been exposed to the light. We mention this to illustrate how prone examples of the painter's art are to vanish, and of the futility of expecting ever to find any genuine picture by one of the great artists of antiquity.

As has been indicated, mural paintings or paintings upon slabs intended to be let into the walls of edifices, beautiful as they often are, must not be accepted as conveying any adequate idea of the great masterpieces of ancient times. Very few of them are better than the work of ordinary house decorators, and bear little relation to art in its highest development. Nevertheless, although mostly the work of artisans, they furnish some information regarding the progress made by the ancients in technique, and frequent reference will be made to them in the sections of this paper which are to follow.

Another means by which we may be helped to a conception of the greatness of the master painters of antiquity is by a study of the painted vases which have been preserved to us. While the colours upon these have certainly been better preserved than those of the frescoes, being burnt in upon the fabric, they convey a relatively poorer idea of the delicacy and finish of paintings from a master hand. Not only did the materials used in vase-painting render it impossible to reproduce the delicacy of the master artist, but the haste with which the work had perforce to be executed upon the absorbent clay put anything like study or reflection in execution out of the question. The outlines had to be bold and continuous, and the artist dared not raise his pencil from any figure which he had once begun. As the work proceeded, the dark colours became confused with the tint of the clay, and the lines, which at first had broadened, contracted so as to leave only a faint trace. The artist could therefore at times discern only with difficulty what he was doing. The vase painter had to contend besides with other difficulties which were never encountered by the artist who painted pictures, and it is consequently unreasonable to take, as some authorities have done, the paintings upon the vases of some particular period as representing the absolute level to which art had at that time attained.

It is customary to commence any description of Greek painting at what is known as the Geometric Age, and trace its development from the crude decorations upon the vases of that period. But the discoveries in recent times of remains of prehistoric art in such localities as Tiryns and Mycenæ, Cyprus and Crete, have demonstrated that the beginnings of Greek painting must be sought further back, and our next instalment will deal with that phase of Greek art known as Mycenæan or Ægean. Prior to what is known as the Dorian invasion, this form of art subsisted over the whole area of the Ægean. Though almost banished for a time it never entirely disappeared from Greece, and it is to its careful study of nature, its freshness, spontaneity, and true artistic feeling that we must look for the elements which gradually overpowered the crude mechanical designs brought from the north by the Dorian invaders, and laid the foundations of an art to which modern painters owe more than they often realise. H.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE GREEK ARCHÆOLOGICAL SOCIETY.

A Statue by Euphranor.

Two communications of considerable importance have recently been made to the Greek Archæological Society, one by Mr. Œconomou, Ephor of Antiquities in Corinthia, Argolis, and Arcadia; the other by Mr. A. Keramopoulos, formerly Ephor of Antiquities in Bœotia, and recently appointed Director of the Epigraphical Museum at Athens.

Mr. Œconomou dealt with the excavations which were made near the Theseion in the hope of finding the ancient Agora, and he described the objects discovered there. Among these were a long and important inscription containing a law on the "Aparchæ" of Eleusis, and another of considerable length relating to the mines of Laureum. The latter, besides giving the names of the mines and making references to many persons, imparts a good deal of very important information about different parts of Attica as well. A third inscription tells us for the first time the name of an Athenian archon called Athenodorus. But the most important discovery of all is the finding of the torso of a beautiful statue of Apollo, of heroic dimensions, and this Mr. Œconomou identifies as the statue executed by the renowned sculptor Euphranor, as mentioned by Pausanias. The inscriptions point to the fact that under the Theseion there was situated the famous Metroon of Athens, about the position of which archæologists have disputed for centuries.

Stele from Warriors' Graves near the Theseion.

Mr. Keramopoulos exhibited and interpreted various representations of warriors which are in the museum of Thebes. These are engraved on a hard black stone, and have been taken from tombs for which they served as distinguishing marks. The execution of these representations is highly artistic, and warrants their being regarded as among the most precious archæological treasures of Greece. One of them represents Myson wearing a chiton and helmet and wielding his spear and shield. Another shows Rynchon wearing an embroidered chlamys, luxurious sandals, and a helmet decorated with a crown of laurel. He also is represented wielding his spear and shield. Mr. Keramopoulos demonstrated that the youthful warrior was a crowned priest of the Ismenian Apollo of Thebes. On the pediment of the stele there are represented a figure which is conjectured to be the father of Rynchon, Rynchon himself as a boy, and a female figure, probably his mother, seated on the chariot of Manto.

Mr. Keramopoulos found two more representations of the same kind in Tanagra. The one is a

tomb stele of Koeranos in the same attitude as the figures described above. It is, unfortunately, much mutilated. The other represents Saugenis wearing a crowned helmet, an *exomis*, elaborate sandals, and a gorgeous shield resembling that of Rynchon. The shield bears on the inside a representation of the slaying of the Chimæra by Bellerophon mounted on Pegasus. Saugenis is fighting only with his dagger, his spear having been broken. One half of the latter weapon is represented lying on the ground, on which are shown also a number of boulders, a tree, and an anemone. In front of Rynchon's head are figured a stone and the head of a spear which have been hurled by the enemy, and which in a moment will encompass the warrior's death. On the pediment of the stele are represented two men feasting, and waited on by a boy cupbearer. There are also some representations of iron implements, namely, an anvil, a hammer, and tongs.

In a future issue we hope to be able to convey to our readers further information regarding these figures, which have been commented upon but briefly by Mr. Keramopoulos.

THE AUSTRIAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

Researches in the Plain of Elis.

At the first meeting of the Austrian School of Archæology at Athens, Mr. Premerstein, under whose able direction the school has made notable progress since its establishment a few years ago, spoke on the subject of the "Curved Elis," the extensive plain near the mouth of the river Peneus. He also alluded to the river Menios mentioned by Pausanias, by whose agency Hercules cleansed the Augean stables. The latter is, in the opinion of Mr. Premerstein, identical with the little stream Langadion.

The "Curved Elis," according to the speaker, formed an extensive inhabited area, but without a central city. Such a city was founded by the dispersed population after the Persian wars, though it was unprotected by any wall. According to Xenophon, it extended not only along the left bank of the Peneus, but along the right as well. In the year 312 B.C. the Acropolis only was fortified, and it was not long before this was destroyed. Regarding the buildings of the city in Hellenic times we have lengthy descriptions by Pausanias, who found it in a flourishing condition.

Christianity came early to Elis, as is demonstrated by inscriptions of the third century A.D. By the Middle Ages there was a flourishing Byzantine town in the plain. Here the Franks erected a strong fortress, by means of which they dominated the surrounding neighbourhood. In modern times some important topographical studies have been conducted at Elis by English scholars (Leake 1805, Dodwel, and Stanhopes), but no excavations of a scientific character. In carrying out its excavations in this neighbourhood the Austrian School has encountered many obstacles. Unfortunately, owing to the absence of quarries, the inhabitants during the Roman and Byzantine periods used the remains of the Greek monuments as building material, while the edifices of the Roman period, which were constructed of brick, have been better preserved. A serious difficulty in the way of excavators was the fact that the remains were scattered over an area of about three square miles.

Fragments of vases belonging to the prehistoric age have been found only in the Acropolis, which seems to have been the sole part inhabited during that period. Some remains of columns have also been unearthed. These perhaps came from the Temple of Athena described by Pausanias, the situation of which was probably occupied in later times by the Frankish fortress. Marble was used only in the buildings belonging to the Greek period, although the walls of many of these structures were merely faced with marble slabs set in cement. The most important of the buildings discovered was the Octagonon. Near this edifice, which in the Christian era was transformed into a church, there were found a number of inscribed tombstones. In one double tomb a golden ornament was discovered, and this has been deposited in the Museum at Athens. In some of the tombs there were also discovered vases of local manufacture, the value and significance of which will, however, require special study.

Ancient Greek Remains in England.

In the course of excavations at Welwyn, Hertfordshire, England, two prehistoric graves were discovered, in which were several interesting archæological treasures. Among these were several amphoræ or wine-jars, some fire implements of iron, and a beautiful Greek cup of exquisite workmanship in silver gilt richly chased. Professor Boyd Dawkins, of Manchester University, who inspected the relics, is of opinion that they belong to what is known as the Prehistoric Iron Age, and must have lain buried since the first century before the Christian era. The discovery implies an early connection between the ancient Britons and the civilised nations of the Mediterranean such as has not been fully realised before.

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MODERN GREEK LITERATURE.

A UNIQUE ACCOUNT-BOOK.

By PAVLOS NIRVANAS.

Our intention in giving these selections is not only to present our readers with typical specimens of modern Greek literature, but to convey some idea of the different phases of national Greek life. In contrast to our last instalment, which was written in a somewhat puristic style and represented an idyllic phase of Greek peasant life, we now reproduce another of those charming chroniques of Mr. Pavlos Nirvanas, which portray with equal felicity but in more demotic language a representative phase of Greek town life. The piquant sense of humour which is typical of this celebrated writer is very well exhibited in the present selection.

The sequel to "The Life of a Goatherd," which we were obliged to hold over from last number, will be included in our next.

Ὁ καπνοπώλης τῆς γειτονιᾶς μου κάμνει μικροπιστώσεις εἰς τοὺς πελάτας του. Ἡ πίστωσις εἶνε εὐκολία καὶ ταυτοχρόνως ἕλξις, τῆς ὁποίας τὴν σημασίαν γνωρίζουν μικρέμποροι καὶ μεγαλέμποροι. Καὶ τὸ μικρὸν καπνοπωλεῖον ἔχει τὴν πελατείαν του, μίαν πελατείαν δεμένην καὶ ἐξησφαλισμένην. Περνᾷ ὁ ἕνας καὶ πέρνει τὸ πακέτο του. "Γράφ' το!" Περνᾷ ὁ ἄλλος καὶ πέρνει τὸ δικό του ἢ τὰ δικά του. "Γράφ' τα!" καὶ αὐτός. Ὁ ἄλλος πέρνει τὰ σιγαρέττα του καὶ φεύγει σιωπηλὸς, χωρὶς νὰ πληρώσῃ. Ἡ σιωπή του σημαίνει πάλιν: "Γράφτο!" Καὶ τὸ ἐμπόριον, κατ' αὐτὸν τὸν τρόπον, μὲ τὰ μικρὰ, ἀπαραίτητα κανονάκια του, πάει ἐμπρός.

Τὴν λογιστικὴν ὑπηρεσίαν τοῦ καταστήματος ἐκτελεῖ ἕνας μικρὸς ὑπηρετᾶκος, κατὰ περιεργότατον τρόπον. Ἔχει μίαν πλάκα κ' ἕνα πετροκόνδυλον καὶ γράφει. Ἀλλὰ τί γράφει; Ἐδῶ εἶνε τὸ περίεργον. Μίαν ἡμέραν ἕνας ἄγνωστος, ποῦ ἐπρομηθεύετο μαζῆ μου, τὴν στιγμὴν ἐκείνην, τὰ καπνά του, δὲν ἠξεύρω πῶς, μοῦ ἐφάνη σὰν γνωστὸν πρόσωπον. Ὅταν ἀπεμακρύνθη, ἠρώτησα τὸν ὑπηρετᾶκον:

—Ποιὸς εἶνε αὐτός;

—Δὲν τὸν γνωρίζω, κύριε.

—Πῶς δὲν τὸν γνωρίζεις, ἀφοῦ τὸν ἐσημείωσες στὴν πλάκα;

Ὁ ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐχαμογέλασεν, ὡς νὰ μ' ἐβεβαίωνεν, ὅτι ἦτο σίγουρος γιὰ τὴ δουλειά του.

—Τὸν ἐσημείωσα! ξαναεῖπε, κρύβων τὴν πλάκα του εἰς τὸ συρτάρι. Τί σὲ μέλει τοῦ λόγου σου;

—Πές μου, νὰ χαρῇς . . . Πές μου! . . .

Ὁ ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐδίστασε μίαν στιγμὴν καὶ ὕστερα, μὲ ὅλας τὰς ἀφελείας τοῦ κόσμου, μοῦ εἶπεν:

—Ἀφοῦ τὸ θέλεις, νά! "Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὴ μύτη." Πῶς νὰ τὸν γράψω, ἀφοῦ δὲν ξέρω τ' ὄνομά του;

Μοῦ ἔδειξεν ἀπὸ μακρυὰ τὴν πλάκα κ' ἐδιάβασα: "Ἐκῆνως μαὶ τὴ μίτοι" . . .

* * *

Τὸ σύστημα τοῦ πρωτοτύπου αὐτοῦ λογιστοῦ ἦτο τῳόντι μοναδικὸν, σοφὸν καὶ πρακτικώτατον. Τί τοῦ ἐχρησίμευε νὰ μάθῃ, ἂν ὁ ὀφειλέτης τοῦ καταστήματος ἐλέγετο Γιαννόπουλος ἢ Δημητρόπουλος; Ἕνα ὄνομα τὸ ξεχνᾷ κανεὶς εὐκολώτερα ἀπὸ μίαν τεραστίαν μύτην. Ἄλλως τε ἕνα ὄνομα δὲν ἐμποδίζει οὔτε τὴν χρεωκοπίαν, οὔτε τὴν κακὴν πίστιν, καὶ μίαν ὑπογραφὴν τὴν ἀρνεῖται κάνεὶς, εἰς κάθε στιγμὴν, ἐνώπιον τῶν δικαστηρίων. Ἐκεῖνος "μὲ τὴ μύτη" ὅμως δὲν ἠμπορεῖ ποτὲ ν' ἀρνηθῇ τὴ μύτη του, ἐκτὸς ἐὰν τὴν κόψῃ.

Δυστυχῶς κάθε νεωτεριστὴς πληρώνει συνήθως ἀκριβὰ τὸν νεωτερισμόν του, ἀπὸ τὸν καιρὸν τοῦ Προμηθέως. Καὶ ὁ πρωτότυπος ὑπηρετᾶκος ἐπλήρωσε καὶ αὐτὸς τὸν φόρον τῶν καινῶν λογιστικῶν δαιμονίων, τὰ ὁποῖα ἀπεπειράθη νὰ εἰσαγάγῃ. Εἶχα πάλιν τὴν τύχην νὰ παρευρεθῶ χθὲς τὸ βράδυ εἰς τὴν σκηνὴν τῆς Νεμέσεως, καὶ σᾶς τὴν διηγοῦμαι πιστῶς. Ἕνας ἀπὸ τοὺς τακτικοὺς πελάτας τοῦ καταστήματος ἐσταμάτησεν εἰς τὸ παραθυράκι, ποῦ ἀπετέλει ὅλον τὸ κατάστημα.

—Πόσα σοῦ θέλω;

—Δυὸ καὶ σαράντα.

The tobacco-seller of my neighbourhood gives credit for trifling amounts to his customers. The convenience and the attractiveness of running up bills is well known to merchants both large and small. And the small tobacco shop has its regular customers, each securely tied to it. One passes and takes his packet of tobacco. "Put it down!" Another passes and takes one packet or more. "Mark them down!" he says. Still another snatches up his cigarettes, and hurries off without a word and without paying. His silence signifies again, "Mark it down!" And trade, after this manner, with the inevitable defalcations, keeps always on.

The book-keeping of the establishment was performed by a diminutive assistant in really comical fashion. He kept a slate and pencil, and wrote. But what did he write? That is the laughable bit. One day a stranger was providing himself with tobacco at the same moment as myself. I do not know how it was, but I seemed to know his face. When he departed I asked the diminutive assistant:—

"Who was that?"

"Don't know, sir."

"What! you do not know him, although you have put him down on your slate!"

The little assistant smiled at me in a manner which testified that for the purpose of his business he was sure enough of his man.

"Oh, yes! I put him down all right," he reiterated, putting away his slate in the drawer. "But what business is it of yours?"

"Tell me, like a good fellow. Do tell me."

The diminutive assistant hesitated for a moment, and then, with all the simplicity in the world, said:—

"Very well, since you wish it—'The man with the Nose'! How should I call him otherwise when I do not know his name?"

He held up his slate to me at a distance, and I read, "The Mane with the Nos."

. . . . . .

The method of this original book-keeper was altogether unique, wise, and most practical. What is the utility of knowing whether the firm's debtor is called Jones or Brown? One forgets a name more easily than an enormous nose. Besides, a name wards off neither bankruptcy nor bad faith, and one repudiates one's signature in the law courts every moment of the day. But one can never repudiate his nose—unless he cuts it off.

Unfortunately the innovator since the time of Prometheus generally pays dearly for his innovations. And the original assistant himself paid the tax of the new book-keeping spirit which he attempted to introduce. I had the luck to find myself there again last evening in the Nemesis scene, and I narrate it faithfully to you. One of the regular customers of the firm halted at the tiny window, which formed the entire establishment.

"How much do I owe you?"

"Two-and-fourpence."

—Ἔχεις λάθος. Μία κ' ἑξῆντα! Νὰ μὴν κλέβετε τὸν κόσμο. . . .

—Δύο καὶ σαράντα, σοῦ λέω. Ἀφοῦ τἄχω γραμμένα.

—Νὰ τὰ ἰδῶ.

—Τί νὰ τὰ ἰδῇς; Ἀφοῦ σοῦ λέω πῶς τάχω γραμμένα. . .

—Φέρ' ἐδῶ τὴν πλάκα.

—Δὲ δίνω πλάκα. Σὰ θέλεις πίστεψε!

Ὁ πελάτης ὥρμησεν ἐξαγριωμένος καὶ ἅρπαξε τὸ μοναδικὸν λογιστικὸν βιβλίον. Μόλις ἔρριψε τὸ πρῶτον βλέμμα ἐπάνω του ἐκοκκίνισεν, ἐκιτρίνισεν, ἄσπρισε καὶ μ' ἕνα σάλτον ἅρπαξε τὸν ὑπηρετᾶκον ἀπὸ τὸν λαιμὸν, τὸν ἔσυρεν ἔξω εἰς τὸ πεζοδρόμιον καὶ τὸν ἐτίναξε κάτω εἰς τὸ χῶμα. Μετὰ δύο δευτερόλεπτα, καὶ πρὶν προφθάσουν νὰ ἐπέμβουν οἱ παριστάμενοι, ὁ μικρὸς ὡμοίαζε, καθὼς ἦτο σωροκουβαριασμένος κατὰ γῆς, μὲ παραγουλισμένον ὀκταπόδι.

Ὁ μανιώδης ἄνθρωπος ἔφευγε γρυλλίζων καὶ βλασφημῶν. Δὲν ἐχρειάζετο πολὺ διὰ νὰ φαντασθῇ κανεὶς τί περίπου τοῦ εἶχε συμβῇ.

* * *

Ἐνῷ τὸ παραγουλισμένον, ταλαίπωρον ὀκταπόδι ἀνελάμβανε βαθμηδὸν τὸ ἀνθρώπινον σχῆμά του, τὸ σῶμα τοῦ ἐγκλήματος εὑρέθηκεν εἰς τὰ χέρια μου. Δύο τρεῖς περίεργοι ἐμαζεύθηκαν ἀκόμη καὶ ἀρχίσαμεν νὰ διαβάζωμεν. Θέλετε νὰ μάθετε τῶρα τὰ ὀνόματα τῶν ὀφειλετῶν τοῦ καπνοπωλείου, τὰ ἐγγεγραμμένα εἰς τὸν μαῦρον πίνακα; Ἀκούσατέ τα.

Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὴ μύτη.

Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὰ γυαλιά.

Ὁ τρεμουλιάρης.

Ἐκεῖνος μὲ τὸ βαμμένο μουστάκι.

Ὁ τσεβδός.

Ὁ κουραμπιές.

Τὰ δύο λιμοκοντοράκια. (Ἕνα πακέτο στὰ δύο!)

Ποῖος ὅμως ἆρά γε νὰ ἦτον αὐτὸς, ποῦ ἐξεδικήθη τόσον ἀγρίως ὅλους τοὺς ἐν μαύρῳ πίνακι συναδέλφους του διὰ τὴν φοβερὰν σάτυραν, ἡ ὁποία ἐξεπλήρωνεν ἁπλῶς μίαν ἀθῶαν λογιστικὴν ἀνάγκην; Διέτρεξα μὲ ἀγωνιώδη περιέργειαν τὴν στήλην τῶν ὀφειλῶν. Πουθενὰ 2.40! Ἐπὶ τέλους εἰς μίαν γωνίαν ἀνακαλύπτω τὸν περιζήτητον ἀριθμόν. Κυττάζω ἀπέναντι καὶ διαβάζω. Τί νομίζετε;

ΕΚΕΙΝΟΣ Ο ΜΠΟΥΦΟΣ!

"You are mistaken—one-and-sixpence. You mustn't rob people."

"Two-and-fourpence, I tell you, for I have it written down."

"Let me see it."

"What do you want to see it for? Don't I tell you that I have it written down?"

"Bring the slate here."

"I do not part with the slate. Believe me if you like."

The customer rushed wrathfully forward and clutched the unique account-book. No sooner had he cast the first glance upon it than he turned red, then yellow, then white, and with one spring he grabbed the diminutive assistant by the throat, dragged him out on the pavement, and dashed him upon the ground. In a few seconds, and before the bystanders had an opportunity to interfere, the little fellow, rolled up as he was like a ball upon the ground, resembled a stuffed octopus.

The infuriated man tore off, growling and swearing. One had not much difficulty in guessing what had happened to him.

. . . . . .

While the unfortunate stuffed octopus was gradually recovering his human shape, the cause of the outrage fell into my hands. Two or three curious bystanders came forward, and we began to read. Would you like to know now the names of the debtors of the tobacco shop which were written upon the dark slate? Then listen:—

"The Man with the Nose."

"The One with the Spectacles."

"The Shaker."

"Him with the Dyed Moustaches."

"The Stutterer."

"The One with the Dough Face."

"The Two Fops (one packet between two)."

Who, then, was this who so savagely avenged all his fellows upon the dark slate for the horrible satire which simply fulfilled an innocent part of book-keeping? I ran through the columns of the debtors. Nowhere two-and-fourpence! At last in one corner I discovered the figures so much sought. I look opposite, and I read—what do you think?—

"THE BLOCKHEAD!"

BACK NUMBERS OF THE HELLENIC HERALD

In reply to repeated inquiries, we beg to inform new subscribers and others that we have still in stock a limited number of previous issues of the HELLENIC HERALD. These previous issues contain a reliable and fully documented account, not otherwise obtainable in concise form, of the recent history of the Near East. They also contain numerous valuable and interesting papers by distinguished authorities (both English and Foreign) on the historical, literary, and social affairs of the Near East, and particularly of Greece.

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FAMOUS PICTURES IN ATHENS.

A PICTURE GALLERY TO BE ERECTED.

In Greece, where the art of sculpture attained its greatest perfection, painting became overshadowed by the renown arising from successive discoveries of great masterpieces of the sister art. On this account no definite movement was ever made in later times to secure the proper housing of such pictures as Greece possessed. Museums of sculpture there were in plenty, but not a single gallery for the exhibition of paintings as such.

This unsatisfactory state of affairs is to be altered in the near future, and a large picture gallery is going to be erected in Athens. The public have become aware that a large and almost priceless collection of paintings by great masters has been lying for years in a more or less neglected condition in the rooms at the Polytechnic in Athens, and a demand has arisen that these should be properly displayed and cared for. How these paintings came there, and how their existence became generally known is as follows:—

Rich and patriotic Greeks resident in all parts of the world had become possessed of masterpieces of the painter's art. At the death of the owners these pictures were frequently bequeathed to the nation, and, there being no proper building for their reception, they were simply stored away in the Polytechnic. Here they reposed amid dust and general neglect. In process of time there accumulated a large collection of paintings whose existence was almost undreamt of outside a small committee who were supposed to look after them.

Four years ago several Greek artists, having learned of the existence of the pictures, visited the collection, and discovered that it contained a large number of really precious works, among them being examples of the very greatest artists. One of the pictures they found to be a portrait of the painter Snyders by Van Dyck. There are also a Portrait of an Old Lady by Rembrandt; the famous representation of "Eleazer and Rebecca" and the "Prayer in the Garden," both by Tiepolo; the "Annunciation," by Alonzo Caruro, of the school of Murillo; "Le Roi Boit," a very large and beautiful piece by Jordaens; the "Joseph" of Giardano; the "Dance of Angels" and "The Education of Eros," by Correggio (a copy of the latter is in the National Gallery in London). There are also "The Four Seasons," the "Esther," and the "Wedding in Cana," by Veronese; the "Taking down of the Body from the Cross," by Van Dyck; the "Alexander the Great," by Salvator Rosa; and some of the productions of the contemporary Greek painters Guise and Œconomo. Altogether, the whole collection numbers about 600 pictures.

When this momentous discovery was first made the artists present formed themselves into a committee, under the presidency of the well-known statesman, Mr. S. Scouloudi, himself an art-lover and skilled collector, in order to arouse public opinion to the necessity of housing such valuable treasures in a fitting manner. As a preliminary, measures were taken to have the pictures rescued from their neglected condition. A few of them were therefore entrusted for renovation to Mr. G. Hazzapoulo, an artist and skilful restorer, and these were so admirably treated that the work of renovating the entire collection was entrusted to him. This task he undertook with the most praiseworthy zeal and patriotic devotion, labouring untiringly for over two years without fee or reward. The result has been wonderfully successful, and reflects the greatest credit upon Mr. Hazzapoulo.

The committee now set themselves in earnest to move the authorities to provide a suitable home for such a noble collection of masterpieces. We are happy to be able to state that these efforts have been crowned with success, and a suitable building is to be provided by the Government. Art will now be represented in Athens not by sculpture alone, but by masterpieces of the sister art as well, and this fact should prove an additional attraction to those who come from distant lands to gaze upon the classic glories of ancient Hellas. May we not also cherish the hope that the presence of such a collection in their midst will serve as a stimulus to Greek artists to regain supremacy in painting—a branch of art in which, equally with sculpture, they were at one time pre-eminent?

REVIEWS.

WHERE FIRE SMOULDERS.*

"Although the difficulties to be overcome by the Young Turks, especially in Asia Minor, are enormous, yet these reformers must remember it is only by abandoning the nationalistic attitude, which I learn, especially of late, has become more noticeable, and by trying to gain the confidence of the subject races of the Empire, that Turkish rule can be established on a basis that will tend to develop the vast resources of the Empire. . . . It is clear that a policy of entirely alienating the sympathy of the Greeks, who so largely make up the trading and commercial classes in Turkey, may not only bring on a war, the termination of which it is difficult to prophesy, but such a system may also be productive of other far-reaching results, which would be most disastrous to the Empire."

This passage so accurately expresses our own sentiments that it might easily be taken as an extract from any one of the leaders that have appeared in the *Hellenic Herald* since the institution of the new *régime* in Turkey. Yet it was not penned by anyone personally or nationally interested in the development of the situation in the Near East. It was written by a practical, level-headed Englishman, who journeyed to the Near East in order to describe the situation exactly as it presented itself to his critical vision, and whose reports were published in the *Nation*, the *Westminster Gazette*, the *Manchester Daily Dispatch*, and other responsible English newspapers. Mr. H. Charles Woods, the writer, has since published an excellent book upon the subject, in which the above words may be found, and this work should be read and studied by every one who desires to be fully informed upon the politics of the Near East.

Turkey.

The author begins with a description of Turkey as it exists under the new *régime*. Though manifestly inclined to be friendly to the Young Turks, he is nevertheless compelled to place his finger upon many of the abuses to which we ourselves have been obliged to direct attention. The base manner in which the elections for the Turkish Parliament were manipulated, so as to secure the return of Ottoman deputies where Christians predominated, comes in for severe condemnation; and the wanton hampering and destruction of the educational institutions of the Christian population also strikes him as peculiarly unjust. He describes in a vivid manner the congestion of public business brought about by the jealousy with which the Young Turks refuse to

* *The Danger Zone of Europe.* By H. Charles Woods, F.R.G.S. (London: T. Fisher Unwin. 10s. 6d. net).

entrust public affairs to any hands but their own; and he confirms our own oft-repeated assertion that the Turkish Government itself is responsible for the needlessly cruel and wicked boycott of the trade of their Greek subjects, and could stop the vile proceedings at any moment they liked.

Among the many disturbing factors that bear upon the situation in the Turkish Empire, Mr. Woods considers the violent and almost savage method of enforcing the Brigandage "Law" to be one of the most serious. As we have repeatedly pointed out, this project, although it has furnished the ground of many acts of barbarism, is not really a law at all. It is nothing more than the draft of a Bill which was never presented to the Ottoman Parliament, and was never passed by the Legislature. When one remembers the almost ungovernable fury of the periodic outbursts of Moslem fanaticism against the Christians in Turkey, and the desperation with which the latter have sometimes had to defend their own and their families' lives from fanatical assailants, and when one also recollects the fate of the Adana Christians after they had surrendered their arms under a guarantee of protection from the Turkish authorities, the sinister meaning of the following passage will come with redoubled force. Mr. Woods, commenting upon the senselessness of torturing Christians for not delivering up more arms, after they had actually surrendered all they possessed, says:—

"The great proportion of the Christians only want to retain their rifles and revolvers for self-preservation, and were they once confident of the good intentions of the Turkish Government they would give up their arms willingly. There is no doubt that the question of disarmament is in itself excellent, but if disarmament has once been decided upon it should be disarmament for the whole population, and not for Christians alone. Not only, however, have Moslems been allowed to retain their rifles, but in some cases it is said that those actually taken from Christian peasants have been issued to Mohammedan settlers (*mouhaggirs*).

The Albanian Rising.

Mr. Woods sets out with remarkable clearness the various causes that led up to the Albanian insurrection against the Young Turkish Government. This is a chapter which deserves to be read with the closest attention, containing as it does a fine description of Albania and the life of its inhabitants. The causes of the insurrection in Albania are in the main identical with those which are producing the unrest in the Turkish Empire at large, although several circumstances contribute to render them more dangerous in Albania than elsewhere. Mr. Woods is far-sighted enough to discern serious trouble in store for the Turkish authorities in Albania unless they abandon their high-handed methods and treat the Albanians in a rational way.

There is, for the Greeks, one disturbing passage in Mr. Woods's admirable description of Albania. It has reference to the resentment said to be entertained—for whatever cause—by the Albanians against the Greeks. While we are not prepared to admit that this ill-feeling exists, at least to the extent suggested by the author, there is nevertheless here a matter to which attention may profitably be directed. Greece has everything to gain and nothing to lose by the cultivation of friendly relations with the peoples who live just across her borders, especially when these are related to her by ties of kindred and are suffering from the same galling yoke as that which she herself once groaned under. Expediency, not less than justice, demands that every needless cause of irritation between the Greeks and Albanians shall be removed, and we trust that Greek statesmanship will see that this is done as speedily as possible.

The Atrocities in Cilicia.

From Turkey and the Albanian rising the author passes to the frightful massacres of Cilician Christians which took place some nine months after the inauguration of the new *régime* in Turkey. These formed the subject of an exhaustive review in our number for last May. Mr. Woods scouts the suggestion that Abdul Hamid was in any way responsible for the massacres, and declares his belief that the officials could have stopped them whenever they chose. Like most humane people, he is indignant at the lenient treatment accorded to those officials of the Young Turk Administration who, if not actually guilty of active participation in the massacres, at least connived at them. Djevad Bey, the Vali of Adana, is said to have secured comparative immunity from punishment by threatening that if he were molested by the Central Government he would publish documents compromising officials holding high office in the State; and regarding Remsi Pasha, the Military Commander who refused to suppress the outbreak, and was sentenced to three months' detention at Mersina, the book says:—

"So much consideration did this gentleman receive that, during his sojourn in Adana, before he was sent to Mersina, his Excellency was continually visited by Turks of all classes. On the day of Mustafa Remsi Pasha's departure for the sea-coast he was escorted to the station at Adana by Mehemet Ali Bey, the then commander of the troops in the city. The departure of this criminal from his former command, in the special first-class carriage always used on this line for distinguished visitors, seems to have been more like a hearty send-off for a general embarking upon a campaign than the retreat of a malefactor undergoing a sentence for his crime."

Whether it was the intention of the Turkish Government that this hideous travesty of justice should serve to *encourager les autres* or not, there is little doubt that this is the effect which it will actually produce.

Crete.

From the Adana massacres the author passes to the consideration of a problem which has taxed to the utmost the patience of the Great Powers, and will continue to tax them until it is settled in the only natural way—the problem of the future of Crete. The events which led up to the declaration of union with Greece are carefully detailed and examined, and the desire of the Cretans to become an integral part of the Hellenic Kingdom is shown to be simply what the Cretans had been encouraged to expect from the promises of the Protecting Powers. The justice and the expediency of gratifying the Cretan desire for union with Greece had never been denied; but the Cretans were always put off with the assurance that their claims could not be acknowledged without opening up the whole Eastern Question, and that was what the Protecting Powers were not prepared to do. The other Balkan States, it was pointed out, would also demand some counter-balancing compensation.

At length, in October, 1908, the Eastern Question was opened up by the annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria, and the declaration by Bulgaria of her independence. The Cretans now thought, quite justifiably, that the only remaining obstacles to union with Greece had been removed. So far as they were concerned, the stipulations of the Great Powers with regard to the good governance

of the island had been punctiliously complied with. As the author says:—

"I have only recalled to memory a few of the events which have occurred in recent Cretan history, and enumerated some of the actions of the European Concert, in order to prove, if certain conditions were fulfilled, that the Cretan people have undoubtedly been encouraged to expect the realisation of their national desire. By October, 1908, the most important stipulations set forth by the Powers in their Note of July 23, 1906, namely, that power and tranquillity should be restored, and that the gendarmerie and militia should be organised, had unquestionably been carried out. . . . By their Declaration [of Union with Greece] in reality the Cretans only assumed of right a situation which was already existent in fact."

Greece.

From Crete to Greece is not a far step, and Mr. Woods at once engages our attention with a careful and impartial account of the events which led up to what has been designated the Military Revolution of 1909. The share which the Military League played in the politics of the kingdom is traced up to the election of the Second Revisionary Chamber. The personnel and organisation of the Greek and Cretan military forces are treated at some length, and the discipline and soldier-like qualities of the rank and file evoke his warmest admiration.

But here, again, the author puts his finger upon a spot which, if his account of it be not exaggerated —and the book is conspicuously free from exaggeration—merits immediate and vigorous attention. The developments in modern military science are yearly rendering warfare more and more a matter of thorough training and exact scientific knowledge, and less and less a matter of dash or personal bravery. No army, however much inspired by patriotic devotion, can hope to survive if the brains which direct it are either badly equipped or insufficiently trained. All the great battles recently waged have pointed to the training of officers as the most vital point in the equipment of modern armies, and every State is devoting increasing attention to this subject as time progresses. In such an important particular Greece cannot afford to be lax or careless. Here is what Mr. Woods says:—

"The physique of the Greek soldier is good, his appearance is smart, and he possesses the national faculty of being able to assimilate rapidly what it is necessary for him to learn. But the efficiency of the gentlemen who fill the commissioned ranks of the Greek army leaves much to be desired. The officers are certainly less efficient than those over whom they are placed. From early morning till late at night the streets and *cafés* of Athens are filled with officers chatting to one another instead of perfecting their knowledge of the science of war, by which alone victories would be achieved should the misfortune of hostilities overtake the country."

But *The Danger Zone of Europe* is a book from which one is tempted to make extracts far in excess of what is permissible in a review, and we are compelled to dismiss the concluding sections upon Bulgaria, Servia, Montenegro, and Bosnia with a mere reference. The text is plentifully illustrated with many fine reproductions from photographs, among which that of the beautiful new cathedral at Sofia stands out pre-eminent, and there are several valuable maps.

There are a few errors in the text, but these are not of a nature to detract from the value of the information which the book conveys. A more legitimate cause of complaint is the total inadequacy of the index, which is represented by but four slender pages, while the publishers' advertisements run to over a hundred pages, and add to the weight and bulk of the book without much gain to the reader. These are defects which we hope to see remedied in future editions of the work, which are certain to be called for. Altogether *The Danger Zone of Europe* is a book not only to be read and enjoyed, but to be kept and studied for the intrinsic value of its information and the light it sheds upon one of the most difficult of present-day problems. H.

PRESS REVIEW.

FRIENDLY ADVICE TO TURKEY.

A considerable section of the more responsible Turkish Press has received the statements recently made in the House of Lords by Lord Crewe and Lord Lansdowne, with regard to the situation in Macedonia, in the spirit in which they were made—that is to say, as a grave but by no means unfriendly warning. We can assure the *Tanin* that there is certainly no desire in this country to interfere in the internal affairs of Turkey, but those who are most anxious to promote permanently friendly relations between Great Britain and Turkey are bound in accordance with their responsibility to call the attention of the powers that be at Constantinople to the deplorable effect which a reversion to the evil methods of Hamidianism would inevitably produce upon British public opinion. We believe that the Turkish Government itself desires to put an end to the methods of excessive severity which have unquestionably been practised by many of the local authorities in Macedonia in connection with the disarmament of the population, and it is officially intimated that the last of the courts-martial in Macedonia has now been removed. A commission of inquiry is also, we understand, about to investigate on the spot the worst cases of alleged harshness and cruelty, and will, we trust, not hesitate to see that justice is done. The Young Turks, who suffered so heavily under the old régime, should be the first to see how disastrous Abdul Hamid's policy towards the subject races ultimately proved to be to the best interests of the Ottoman Empire, and how powerless was even Germany's unfailing support to save him from its inevitable consequences. It is a curious and very inevitable coincidence that at the very moment when some of the most eminent German divines have been paying a visit to this country in order to preach a better understanding between Germany and Great Britain in the higher interests of Christianity and civilisation, the chauvinist newspapers of Constantinople should have been goaded on by the *Osmanischer Lloyd*, the leading German organ in that city, to a violent campaign against Mr. Noel Buxton and his friends of the Balkan Committee. And for what reason? Simply, it would appear, because they, too, felt it their duty, in the higher interests of Christianity and civilisation, to warn the Young Turks whose cause they had so warmly espoused after the revolution against the dangers of the same suicidal policy, which, though it may have served the material and temporary interests of Germany, brought Abdul Hamid to ruin.

The Times.

TURKEY'S OBLIGATIONS TO THE POWERS.

The Powers, in order to encourage the supposed new system, agreed to withdraw the European officers from Macedonia. Great Britain especially welcomed the prospect of a reformed Turkey, of a Turkey in which all Turkish subjects were to be given security for life and property, and a law the same for all. But the first elections to the Parliament showed that the movement was in reality a movement to restore

the Turkish ascendancy in Turkey, which means for European Turkey, where there are very few Turks by racial descent, for the Moslem element of the population. Since then the Turkish Army has been freely used in Macedonia, Albania, and elsewhere for a process described as "disarmament," which is reported to admit of being described as "devastation," while the terrible massacres at Adana, of which many Europeans and Americans, including a British Military Consul, were witnesses, do not appear to have been discouraged nor the officials who supervised them punished by the Government of the Young Turks. What all this means is that the ideas which induced the British Government to give its countenance and diplomatic support to the Turkish Government have been rejected by the Turks, who have assumed that the British sympathies were given to them to support them in the very same courses which estranged British sympathies from Abdul Hamid. What the Earl of Crewe said on Monday in reply to the Marquis of Lansdowne was: "We all hope that the Turkish Government will recognise the responsibility which they have for the fair treatment of all races and creeds." In other words, both British parties hope that the Turkish Government will abide by the spirit of the Constitution which it has proclaimed and of the declarations which it has made.

This hope, expressed in the most friendly terms, in view of the report quoted from the proceedings of the Turkish Parliament to the effect that in Macedonia hundreds of persons had been beaten, some to permanent disablement and some to death, has been received by the Young Turk newspapers with a storm of abuse, and by the Turkish Foreign Minister with expressions of astonishment. What effect does the Turkish Foreign Minister expect his words, which will be read alongside the less reserved language of the Turkish newspapers, to produce on both parties in England and on Sir Edward Grey? We cannot imagine. But it is easy to explain for the benefit of the Turkish Foreign Minister the effect that his words will in fact produce. They will recall in the minds of the English observers the words of the late Marquis of Salisbury, who after his vigorous support of the Turks in 1878 to 1880 said towards the close of his life that it seemed that in those days Great Britain had "backed the wrong horse." But Sir Edward Grey and Lord Lansdowne will reflect that they have tried to combine the policy that aims at the welfare of the inhabitants of Turkey and that which aims at the maintenance of British interests. They may now begin to consider that both aims have been sacrificed to the desire to help the Young Turks and the new *régime*, and they inquire what the new *régime* has done either for the good of the population of Turkey, Moslem, Greek, Armenian, or Slav, and what effort it has made—we will not say to promote British interests, which they have never been asked or expected to do, but to avoid needlessly embarrassing Great Britain even in her efforts to be of use to Turkey? The answer to these questions must decidedly affect the future course of British policy. *Morning Post.*

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NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE.

ASSETS, 31st October, 1910.	30th Oct., 1910. * Drachmae.		31st Sept., 1910. * Drachmae	
Funds: Cash	3,503,478	07	3,524,865	72
Funds: Ionian Bank, Bonds	506,345	—	356,680	—
Funds: Ditto, of one or two Drachmae	1,159,614	—	1,057,188	—
In Foreign Banks: Gold	40,508,361	52	43,580,591	74
In Foreign Banks: Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	160,357	83	173,713	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds: in gold Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper Dr. 34,617,201.25	60,554,292	50	60,630,910	50
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,440,000	—	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,150,903	82	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	21,273,213	37	21,394,815	23
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,541,762	21	3,519,040	81
Advances on Securities	23,034,855	27	23,508,951	15
Advances on Merchandise	6,227,775	11	4,553,302	92
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	70,378,948	34	72,421,044	26
Loans to Communities, Harbours, and other legal bodies	46,181,948	83	46,264,436	98
*Agricultural Drafts	11,912,143	75	13,006,033	75
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,616,441	90	5,566,492	35
Shares in Local Companies	7,471,158	20	7,471,158	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds: Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece; Bank Bonds at 2½%	728,182	35	733,874	76
Bank and Premises	2,246,440	94	9,267,702	77
*Doubtful Debts	3,526,210	11	3,499,776	75
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,394.002	11	1,389,140	41
Sundry Accounts	2,574,379	37	2,373,619	64
Sundry Foreign Accounts	5,881,597	24	2,197,096	88
Redemption of State Participation in the Profits of the Bank	1,075,200	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	560,100	—	560,000	—
Commission for Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in Bank Bonds	50,000		50,000	—
Sundries	822,146	25	684,997	96
Dr.	407,307,84	49	408,230,112	84

LIABILITIES.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank Dr. 49,820,329.73	124,291,017	22	125,305,490	34
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	9,547,315	36	11,964,352	16
Deposits without Interest	19,691,782	95	21,069,671	56
Demand Notes	1,608,729	25	1,491,208	41
Unclaimed Dividends	228,430	—	284,035	—
International Financial Control: A/c of payment of Revenues affected: Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes Dr. 4,282,520.64	4,477,717	77	1,874,092	16
Service of the State Loans—Gold	640,396	80	705,659	05
Ditto, in Bank Notes	306,431	22	372,560	37
State Deposits—Gold	4,808	39	4,808	39
Ditto, Bank Notes	15,062	65	15,062	65
State Deposits: For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway ... Gold ... Notes	160,357	83	173,713	83
Deposits at Interest	1,527	21	59,996	21
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%	119,098,362	26	118,799,336	18
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes at 2½%	40,574,160	—	40,571,160	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	20,367,900	—	20,367,900	—
Ditto, Bank Notes at 2½%	1,495,698	—	1,727,474	—
Savings Bank	267,345	—	280,142	50
Bills to be paid	13,418,013	18	13,275,501	83
Sundries	7,263,061	40	6,624,948	20
Dr.	407,307,846	49	408,230,112	84

* At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachma is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant,
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

Athens, 10th Nov., 1910.

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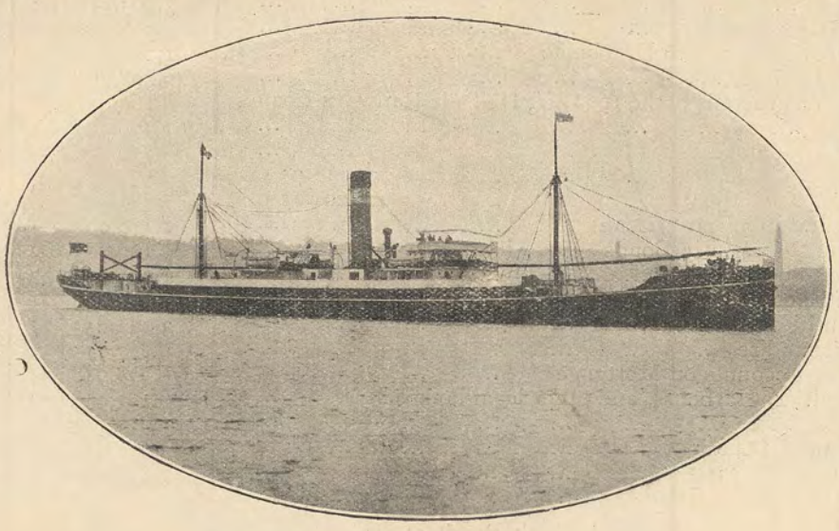

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THE
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THE LANGUAGE QUESTION IN GREECE.

GREECE has once again been distracted by the language question, which, thanks to the firmness and moderation of the Government, did not upon this occasion degenerate into the unfortunate riots which accompanied its discussion a decade ago. It is open to doubt whether it was quite judicious to raise such a controversy at the present critical juncture in the nation's career, and it is also uncertain whether anything save the process of time will furnish a satisfactory solution. But there can be no uncertainty as to the wisdom of the Government in appeasing a popular clamour by the most politic means that lay at its disposal, thus leaving the path clear for the policy of reconstruction of which the nation stands so greatly in need.

The language controversy is of long standing in Greece It is a legacy from ancient times. It first began to take definite shape when Athens lost her political predominance, and the Attic language, from being paramount all over the Greek world, began to fall into decay as a spoken language. In its place there arose another tongue, the living language of the scattered Greek communities, after the classic language had been relegated to the domain of literature.

A considerable amount of this change was due to the shifting of the centre of gravity of the Greek world from Athens to Alexandria, to the changing conditions under which the Greeks had begun to live, and to their contact with other nations. From the latter source came many words and forms of expression along with peculiarities of pronunciation that were quite foreign to the classic tongue.

The relationship in which this new demotic language stood to the Attic is perhaps best illustrated by a comparison of the New Testament Greek with the diction of Lucian, who wrote at almost the same period as the writers of the Gospels. The New Testament language represents the tongue of the great mass of the people, employed in business and for the purposes of everyday life; the other is the mode of expression used by the cultured few.

In the centuries that have elapsed since the Gospels were written in the demotic tongue the gap between the languages, instead of lessening, has widened. A comparison between the present colloquial language and that of the Gospels will demonstrate how far the former has evolved in that period. The writings of the evangelists and of the early fathers are now as far, if not further, removed from the living language of modern Greece as the diction of the New Testament is from that of Lucian.

Meanwhile the puristic language was mainly preserved by its being employed as the traditional language of the Church, there being but little intellectual movement outside the Church until the liberation of Greece at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The most notable exception to this general intellectual stagnation was a considerable body of poetry which began to come into existence as early as the seventeenth century. It contains some of the most beautiful thoughts in the Greek tongue, and its diction is the language of the people as then spoken.

The language question became a burning national one after the liberation. A large party in the nation advocated the claims of the classic tongue to be recognised as the official language of the country, pointing out that the glorious traditions of the race, to which the liberation of the nation itself was largely due, were linked in the closest possible manner with that tongue, and that its retention would be of the greatest advantage. Others again, among whom were many Ionian islanders, urged the adoption of the demotic tongue, pointing out that it

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satisfied the needs of everyday life, and citing the popular poetry to which we have already referred as proof that it could also be used as a vehicle for the conveyance of the highest forms of thought. After a good deal of discussion and controversy, it was decided to adopt as the national language a moderate form of the puristic tongue, a solution of the difficulty that was warmly advocated by the great *savant* Koraes. The enthusiasm that was aroused by this decision brought about a recrudescence of the puristic tongue, and, with few exceptions, the writers of the period that immediately followed strove hard with one another to express their thoughts in language that approximated as closely as possible to the classic.

This state of things continued until about the 'seventies, when the controversy was again renewed. The demotic party was on this occasion strenuously supported by the eminent prose writer Roïdes and the poet Valaorites. The able manner in which the claims of the colloquial language were presented caused a revulsion in its favour, especially in literary circles, where it became the generally recognised vehicle for the expression of literary thought. In most other branches of activity, however, the puristic tongue continued to hold its own, *e.g.*, in the debates of the Chamber, in official communications, in most of the newspapers, and it was also the language taught in the schools.

At the present time the language which finds most favour in literary circles is more or less an amalgamation of the puristic and demotic forms. It is the language actually spoken by educated Greeks, no matter from what part of the world they come. It represents the old demotic tongue greatly enriched by importations from the puristic language and purged of the barbaric elements which were introduced into it while the Greeks were living under foreign rule.

Some ten years ago the language controversy assumed an acute form, when a translation of the Gospels was made in the colloquial tongue, and copies of the book were extensively distributed all over Greece. This action evoked strong protests from the extreme partisans of the puristic tongue, who organised an agitation against the innovation, the trouble on this occasion assuming a more serious complexion than previously, owing to the religious question becoming mixed with the language difficulty. In Athens there were serious riots, which were only quelled by the power of the military, and these were followed by violent scenes in the Chamber, culminating in the resignation of the Government.

About a twelvemonth ago the language question again took formidable shape, when a proposal was made by adherents of the colloquial party for the foundation of a model school at Athens, in which only the colloquial language should be taught in the elementary classes. This suggestion aroused to action some of the more immoderate supporters of the puristic party, who in alarm petitioned the Chamber to insert a clause in the Constitution declaring the puristic to be the official language of the nation. M. Venizelos, with the practical good sense which distinguishes him, assented to this demand, although he probably did not regard the matter as one that called very urgently for legal intervention. The concession, however, had the effect of allaying an agitation that might possibly have grown formidable, and has left the way clear for the realisation of the programme of practical reforms to which the Government has put its hand.

Although the asperities of the difficulty have been smoothed over for the present, it is a little too much to hope that they have altogether disappeared. The growing use of the colloquial language as a vehicle for the expression of literary thought, as well as its identity with the pulsing progressive life of the nation, precludes the possibility of its being fettered for any serious length of time by legal enactments. As a matter of fact, language, possessing as it does the elusive quality of fluidity, does not lend itself readily to treatment at the hands of the legislator, and the habits ingrained into successive generations of the common people are not easily directed into new and artificial channels. No solution of the difficulty which can in any sense be called final therefore presents itself to us, and all we can do at the present time is to hope that the nation will not allow itself to be swayed by the extremists on either side of the controversy, but will exercise patience and moderation until time itself furnishes a way out of the difficulty.

GREEK FINANCE.

BUDGET ESTIMATES FOR 1911.

M. KOROMILAS, Minister of Finance, has laid the Budget Estimates for 1911 before the Chamber. After exposing at some length the defects of the present system of keeping the public accounts, M. Koromilas said that the deficits of recent years would be covered by the residue of a loan contracted some months ago. The too optimistic forecasts of his predecessors not having been realised, he found himself compelled to increase the revenue to make this year's Budget balance.

With this object he proposed to rearrange the income-tax, fixing it at 1-10th to 3 per cent. on incomes higher than 5,000 drachmae (about £200), estimated on the basis of the rents of the taxpayers' dwellings, and put a tax of 6 per cent. on the products of cultivated lands in excess of the needs of the owner, to counterbalance the income-tax on vineyards and on working animals which had been abolished by his predecessors. Estimating the yield of these new taxes as 5,000,000dr. (£200,000) the revenue will be raised to 136,277,463dr. (£5,451,098); expenditure is reckoned at 135,094,473dr. (£5,403,778), giving a surplus of 1,182,990dr. (£47,319).

M. Venizelos, in his capacity as Minister for War and for the Marine, has explained the expenses of these departments. He has pointed out that it was imperatively necessary to complete all the armaments necessary for the reorganisation of the army, and hence that the Government were precluded from drawing up their Budget this year on the new basis

proposed in his programme of reform. "In spite of the eminently peaceable character of this nation, which feels the need for a long period of calm to devote herself to her regeneration and to the restoration of a strong Government," said M. Venizelos, "it is certain that Greece will be unable to bring about her rehabilitation or her economic development without a military organisation which corresponds to her resources and may inspire her people with a sense of proper security against all external attack."

Thus besides the 21 millions of the ordinary military estimates another 22 millions are to be raised, making a total of 43,000,000dr. (£1,820,000) to be expended this year on military requirements.

In next year's Budget a credit of 2½ million will be included for the purposes of a loan which will be contracted in order to complete the organisation of the army, to construct hydraulic works in Thessaly, and to improve the harbour at the Piraeus. Special military expenses being then at an end, a good part of the revenue and funds of national defence will be able to be added to the receipts in the general Budget, which, with this year's surplus, the hoped-for increase of revenue, and the suppression of smuggling, will give a sum of 7,000,000dr. free to be used by the Government for the reorganisation of the various administrations, for the alleviation of the military Budget, and for the diminution of indirect taxes on articles of prime necessity.

THE ISOLATED RAILWAYS OF GREECE.

GREECE is the only European country which is not connected with the Continent by a railway. Deprived of this prime factor in economic development, and possessing no means of communication with the rest of Europe except by sea, Greece stands isolated at the end of the Balkan Peninsula like some distant island. The new line from Piraeus to the Turkish frontier is now open, it is true, but at the frontier it halts, waiting for the permission of the Ottoman Government before it dares proceed any further.

The Piraeus Route to the East.

The advantages to Turkey, as well as to Greece, of linking up the Piraeus line with the European system ought to be perfectly obvious to everyone. If this were done, Greece would be placed in direct daily communication with the rest of Europe. Athens would be only sixty-two hours from Paris and seventy-one from London. Turkey on her part would benefit by the possession of a line running through Western Macedonia, and carrying thither both passengers and capital, to say nothing of the help afforded in the peaceful development of a country hitherto subject to great disturbance. So far as the extent of ground to be traversed is concerned, Turkey should stand to gain very much more than Greece, seeing that the stretch of line from the Greek to the Servian frontiers would be approximately 700 kilometres, as against only 400 in Greek territory—that is, from Piraeus to the Turkish frontier.

International Advantages.

Apart altogether from its effect upon the interests of Turkey and Greece, the junction of the Greek railways with the European system is a matter of very great international importance. England most of all perhaps would stand to benefit by the change, for the mails and passengers to India would save at least thirty hours on each journey, the route from Piraeus to Port Said being 324 miles shorter than that from Brindisi.

To unite the Greek railways with those of Europe, and achieve so many desirable results, two alternative schemes have been put forward. One is to run along the coast a line of 90 kilometres in length, and effect a junction with the Monastir-Salonica line, which connects with the rest of the European system at Gida. This route is at once the most direct and the most natural. The line would encounter no serious natural obstacles, and would cost only 12 million francs.

Turkish Opposition.

Unfortunately, this scheme, with all its manifold advantages to commend it, does not meet with the approval of the Turkish Government. The leaders of the Young Turk Party, intent upon schemes of military aggrandisement rather than peaceful development, prefer, for strategic reasons, a line from Verria to Elassona. The disadvantages of such a line, from a commercial point of view, are almost disheartening. It would be at least twice as long as the other, and would traverse a mountainous region where the winter snows render traffic impracticable for about three months in every year. Owing to the natural difficulties to be overcome in constructing a railway in such a mountainous region, the sum required would be at least 70 million francs—about six times as much as the cost of the other scheme.

Fear of the Greek Fleet!

For their opposition to the projected scheme of a railway along the coast the Turks advance two reasons. One is that in time of war such a line would be at the mercy of a Greek fleet. The other is that the Piraeus would drain the trade from Salonica, and bring about the decay of the great Macedonian port.

To those who have studied the question, both of these reasons will seem about equally ridiculous. If it be true, as the Turks assert, that the coastwise line would so greatly benefit Greece at Turkey's expense, it is quite absurd to imagine that in war-time the Greeks would seek to destroy it. If the Turks mean that in war-time a Greek fleet might prevent the passage along the coast of Turkish troops intended for an invasion of Greece, that would not seriously hinder Turkey if she were determined upon an invasion, for all the present avenues of approach would still remain open to her. In these days, too, when the Turks are spending upon Dreadnoughts immense sums of money that should properly be applied to the internal development of the Empire, it is rather ridiculous on their part to attempt to raise the bogey of a threatening Greek fleet.

Salonica.

As far as the effect upon Salonica of linking up the Piraeus railway with the European system is concerned, the Turks have very little cause for fear. When the Brindisi line was first projected, Genoa and Trieste were going to be ruined. Something like the reverse is now seen to have been the case. And in just the same way the employment of the Piraeus as a terminus for the fast east-bound traffic of Europe will not appreciably affect the importance of Salonica. The Macedonian seaport will remain, as it is now, the great port of transit for merchandise coming from Western Europe, for this will always be despatched by the sea route, it being infinitely less costly. To the Piraeus will only fall the mails and those passengers who at present choose to travel, not by the Salonica route, but by various other Mediterranean lines.

THE GODS IN EXILE.

HOW THE ELGIN MARBLES CAME TO ENGLAND.

"THERE were some people in the carriage who said they were going to see the Elgin Marbles. So I whispered to Jim: 'What are the Elgin Marbles?' 'Dunno,' he replied, 'but we're out for the day; let's follow and find out.' Well, they went in there," indicating the museum, "and we went in too, and they did nothing but stare at some old stone picters until we couldn't stand it any longer, and came away. So we didn't see the Elgin Marbles after all."

Thus on a recent public holiday spoke a lady to her neighbour as they sat on a seat outside the great museum in Bloomsbury Square. The naïveté of the remark and the injured tone in which the lady uttered her complaint set me wondering how far her artistic tastes were representative of those who came annually to inspect the "old stone picters." I also speculated whether, independently altogether of their artistic value, the great masterpieces would rise in popular estimation if it were known what sacrifices had had to be made, what toil endured and dangers overcome before they were rescued from the hands of the philistines and safely lodged in the English capital While ruminating thus I made the discovery that the story of the Marbles had partially faded from the tablets of my own memory, and for my own credit I had better renew it. I therefore proceeded to the library, where in an appropriate volume I read the following narrative.

The Elgin Marbles derived their name from Thomas Bruce, the eleventh Earl of Elgin, who was despatched as British Ambassador to Constantinople in 1799. An enthusiastic archæologist and lover of art he determined to use all the influence of his position to secure the permission of the Turkish authorities to make drawings and casts of the priceless remains of Greek art, which were rapidly disappearing under the onslaughts of Mohammedan fanatics and callous utilitarians.

After a great deal of difficulty leave was at length obtained, and Lord Elgin established at his own expense a staff of artists and labourers at Athens to carry on the work. The plans of the party were thwarted at every step and in every conceivable way, and no sooner was it seen that any particular treasure had been selected for reproduction than it was secretly broken to pieces by the Turks.

It was while personally superintending the work of reproduction in Athens that Lord Elgin became convinced of the necessity of removing what remained of the original sculptures to some safe asylum. Leave to make excavations for statues could often be obtained only by purchasing houses and ground from the Turks. On one occasion Lord Elgin had bought a site upon which stood the remains of a building from which he surmised that the statues had fallen and were probably buried near the foundations. All searching was, however, fruitless. Puzzled, his lordship approached the owner of the site and asked whether he could throw any light upon the matter.

As soon as the Turk heard that the party were searching for statues he broke into a loud laugh. "If you had asked me that before," he said, "I could have saved you all your trouble. I myself found the figures and pounded them to pieces to make mortar because they were such excellent marble. A great part of the Citadel has been built with mortar made in the same way. That marble makes capital lime."

Lord Elgin saw plenty of proof that the barbarous action of this particular Turk was being repeated in almost every part of the city—nay, over the whole of Greece, and he resolved to seek permission to remove such precious treasures in order to save them from certain destruction.

The difficulties put in the way of Lord Elgin in this quest might well have baffled a less influential man or turned aside a less determined one. But at length his persistence was rewarded and in 1802 he was authorised by Imperial firman to "take away any pieces of stone from the temples of the idols (!) with old inscriptions or figures thereon." He now set to work with all haste, for the treasures of antiquity were disappearing before his very eyes The Turkish marksmen improved their aim by shooting daily at the loftiest sculptures in Athens, and the finest temples were converted into powder magazines.

Early in 1803 all the sculptures which could be removed from the Parthenon were packed ready for shipment to England. Of those which had to be left careful casts and drawings were made.

It was a terribly arduous task conveying the Marbles from Athens to the Piraeus. There were no roads, no suitable means of conveyance for weights so ponderous, no appliances for lifting or moving them. However, they at last reached the coast, and there a ship, purchased with Lord Elgin's own money, was waiting to receive them. In this they were carefully deposited, and then the vessel sailed for England.

Scarcely had the Marbles put to sea, however, than a terrible storm sprang up, and the ship, with most of her priceless cargo, went to the bottom near Cerigo. Neptune took the statues into his custody rather than see them carried into exile.

Lord Elgin was once more baffled, but he was not beaten. Indomitably he set to work to raise the submerged treasure. For the ship he did not care. It cost five thousand pounds and two years of arduous labour to rescue the lost statues from the bottom of Ocean; but at last the task was finished and they were conveyed to England.

At first the sculptures were deposited in Lord Elgin's own residence, but afterwards removed to a building where they could be better inspected by the public. It was not until the year 1816 that they were finally purchased by the British Government for the nation. The price paid was only about half of that expended by Lord Elgin. The work is said to have cost him altogether a capital outlay of £50 000, without interest; the price paid by the British nation was £35,000.

When the Marbles had been safely deposited in England the question of their restoration was discussed. Lord Elgin sought the advice of the most eminent authorities. The reply which he received from the great Italian sculptor Canova is worthy of being placed on record: "The Parthenon Marbles have never been retouched," he said. "It would be sacrilege in me—sacrilege in any man—to put a chisel on them. . . . They are the works of the ablest artists the world has seen."

And so the gods and goddesses remain in London as they were when taken from their native Greece. Around them surges the ceaseless traffic of

the busiest city in the world, and over them hangs the pall of its leaden skies. Worst injury of all perhaps, people devoid of artistic sense look on them with contempt and call them "old stone picters."

. . . . . .

Ah! well. Let us not be too hard on the nation which extended its hospitality to the gods when their native Greece was in the hands of the spoiler, and when many members of the Olympic brotherhood had been pounded to pieces to make "capital mortar" for the Turkish builder. The self-denying labours of a British statesman and the somewhat niggardly piety of a British Parliament at least rescued them from that fate. And, who knows, the day may not be far distant when the spell shall be broken, and the gods shall be permitted to rejoin their brethren who since the dawn of liberty in Greece some eighty years ago have been emerging from their hiding-places one by one to bask in the sunshine of their native skies.

. . . . . .

I had by this time returned to the "Elgin" room of the museum, and as I sat ruminating thus I fancied I detected a movement among the figures in a metope facing me. I glanced up in surprise and saw the eye of a sculptured deity fixed upon mine. He seemed to divine the thoughts that were passing through my brain, for as I gazed the chaste severity of his countenance was softened by a smile. Full of friendliness it was, and with even a suggestion of gratitude about it, but it was inexpressibly wistful.

. . . . . .

The reasons which impelled Lord Elgin to remove the famous Marbles from Greece do not now hold good. The Turkish marksman no longer makes a target of the highest triumphs of human art, nor does the Mohammedan householder pound them into mortar. In Greece to-day the treasures of the past are cared for as well as in any civilised country in the world. There is no reason why the gods should be separated from their brethren any longer. Their banishment has endured for more than a hundred years, and it is time that they returned. Greece is their home. Under her sparkling skies their simplicity will appear more noble, their dignity more impressive, their surroundings more natural. The meanest peasant will understand and worship them; they will enter into the spirit of the life of the nation.

. . . . . .

It is perfectly true that the British Government paid to Lord Elgin £35,000 for the gods of the Parthenon, but by all the canons of justice they were not his to sell. Greece had been garrotted into national nervelessness, and the fact that the Sublime Highwayman made over part of his booty to another traveller gave the latter no sort of legal right to retain it. Besides, when a storm of protest arose in England over the spoiling of the Parthenon Lord Elgin justified his action by pointing out that Greece was not able herself to defend her treasures, and that it was a kindly action to take them into safe keeping for her.

. . . . . .

Well, Greece now waits with open arms to welcome these children of her genius who have been so long estranged from her. Nowhere in the world will the gods be safer than in Greece to-day. It was a kindly action to shelter them in the time of peril; it will be a generous one to return them now that the storm is past. Is not a century of exile long enough? Let the gods return! H.

THE PICTORIAL ART OF GREECE.

II.—THE MYCENAEAN PERIOD.

WHAT is perhaps the most distinctive feature of Mycenaean art is its intense naturalism. When Eupompus, the founder of the great school of painting which flourished at Sicyon in the fourth century B.C., told his pupils to follow nature rather than the cleverest master, he was but repeating an axiom familiar to the artists of Mycenaean times. The very rudest of their compositions from the point of view of technique is yet instinct with grace and movement. The artists of Babylonia and Egypt were rigidly conventional, and all their productions were simply copies of two or three well-recognised types. The artists of the Mycenaean period were as freely unconventional, and they delighted to follow nature in all the infinitude of her striving after variety. Even where a Mycenaean wall or ceiling is decorated with rosettes or spiral ornaments which appear at first sight to be simply reproductions of one another it will be found on examination that no two of them are exactly alike.

Wherever the decorated remains of Mycenaean civilisation have been discovered they have always proved to be remarkably homogeneous, and are evidently the artistic expression of people whose occupations, pastimes, traditions and outlook upon life were practically identical. From the representations that have been left to us upon vases and buildings we can gather that the Mycenaeans were a warlike and virile race, delighting in the chase, and with a passionate love for the sea and the plants and animals of the shore. The earliest examples of Mycenaean pottery bear beautiful representations of trailing seaweed; and the octopus, with its gracefully twining tentacles, is always a favourite motive. Along with these we find at a later stage representations of aquatic bird life—the swan sailing gracefully upon the surface of water and the wild duck springing from the marshes. The horse, the dog and the cat, deer, goats and lions all figure prominently in Mycenaean paintings, and are represented in all sorts of surroundings and in an infinite variety of attitude.

Of all the creatures which are depicted by Mycenaean artists none seems to have caught his imagination like the bull. This animal forms the central figure of most of the great Mycenaean compositions that have been preserved to us. Here and there he is represented in combat with the lion, but it is the conflict between his untutored strength and the brain-aided muscles of his Achaean contemporaries which affords the Mycenaean artist the keenest delight.

It has been conjectured that the people who produced the art treasures of the Mycenaean age discovered on the mainland of Greece were the Achaeans described in Homer's epics. Whoever they were, it is certain that they were a most artistic people. Everything used by them was adorned with representations of animate and inanimate nature, in the execution of which their fancy found full expression. Chased

cups and weapons, engraved rings and precious stones, caskets, jewellery, and even decorated domestic utensils, bear witness to the universal passion of the Mycenaean people for art.

Only the pottery and frescoes of the Mycenaean age can be considered here, since it is exclusively upon these that productions of the brush are to be found. Of these the frescoes are incomparably the more important. Until a comparatively recent period the famous "Bull" of Tiryns was the most important Mycenaean fresco known. At Mycenae, too, the palace walls were found to have been covered with frescoes representing warriors and their steeds. But all these pale into insignificance beside the startling discoveries which have been made by Dr. Evans in Crete. In the great palace of Knossus nearly all the walls as well as the vestibules were found to have been decorated with frescoes What remains of these have been named by Dr. Evans after the principal figures in the composition. Thus we have the "Cup-bearer" fresco, the "Flower-gatherer," and so forth. But perhaps the most wonderful of the Cretan discoveries are a series of what have been called miniature frescoes, in which not only single figures, but positive crowds of both men and women are represented in animated postures, and with architectural features as a kind of setting, which suggests, even at that early period, a certain degree of knowledge of the laws of perspective. The drawing of these figures, which are ruddy-tinted in the case of men and white where women are represented, is of the most skilled character, and suggests the execution of the Classic period.

The chronology of Mycenaean art is a subject which is full of difficulty. The period of which it was the product is too indefinite for its limits to be defined with anything approaching precision. The expression, "the Mycenaean age," as ordinarily employed, is not used to denote any particular stretch of time, but simply that epoch during which "Mycenaean" art took on its most distinguishing characteristics. Roughly, it extended over a thousand years—in some localities more, in others less.

On the Greek mainland and over most of the Aegean area the "Mycenaean" period, as defined by most authorities, lasted from about 1800 B.C. until the Dorian Conquest. In Crete it is practically identical with what has been termed the "Middle Minoan," which is supposed to have been inaugurated by the advent to power of King Minos, and to have lasted from about 2000 to 1500 B.C. In the island of Thera, one of the Cyclades, it must have attained its fullest local development at a still earlier date, for there all the remains are buried beneath deep deposits of volcanic matter which on geological evidence were the result of a great eruption about 2000 B.C. In Cyprus, again, the Mycenaean civilisation seems to have escaped the fate which it met from the Dorians on the mainland, from the irrupting tribes in Crete, and from the cataclysms of nature in Thera. Beginning there at a very early period, it continued to flourish with unabated vigour until about 500 B.C., several centuries after it had been eclipsed even on the mainland.

If we decide to employ the term "Mycenaean," as do some authorities, to denote the whole period during which was developed the art which rose to its greatest eminence on the Greek mainland from 1500 to 800 B.C., we shall have to go back to very early times. In Crete we can discern the first throbbings of it at the close of the later Stone Age. The decorated pottery of the neolithic strata is first incised with rude geometrical patterns, which are later filled in with some chalky substance, appearing as lustreless white patterns upon a dark background. The earliest painted vases from Crete bear a decoration which is almost the counterpart of this neolithic decoration, with this difference, that the patterns, instead of being incised and filled, are reproduced in paint. Sometimes the two methods of producing the same effect are found subsisting side by side, and even overlapping each other, painted vases gradually appearing among those incised and filled, then the latter gradually becoming rarer, and finally disappearing altogether.

The art of the period which immediately followed the Stone Age in Crete has been designated "Kamaraes," from a celebrated cave on the side of Mount Ida, near the village of Kamaraes, where the first typical specimens were discovered. The date of its commencement in Crete has been put at 3000 B.C., but it is probably a good deal earlier.

It used to be considered that the Kamaraes denoted a distinct period in Crete, but that notion is losing ground in the light of discoveries that are being made every year. Not in Crete alone, but in almost every part of the Mycenaean world where excavations have been conducted, the Kamaraes is found underlying the Mycenaean deposits, and in the upper strata, where the more pronounced Mycenaean motives make their appearance, the two styles are found shading into one another, just as do those of the later Stone Age with the early Kamaraes.

The remains of the Kamaraes period have a close affinity to the early deposits of the Cycladic civilisation as represented in Thera, those of the second city of Hissarlik, which Schliemann at first mistook for the site of Troy, and with those found in many other localities. They seem to be almost co-extensive with the later Mycenaean remains, and represent a phase of civilisation almost as well defined and widespread as that which followed them.

The notion that Greek art was exclusively the product of the millennium before Christ is practically extinct to-day. The kindred idea that all the phases of artistic development which preceded the Classic age existed independently of it and of each other, is rapidly losing ground. Recent discoveries have shown that peculiarities of form and distinctive methods of treatment run with marvellous persistency throughout the whole course of Greek art. What is known as the "pure Classic profile" is to be found, with all its nobility of expression, in early Mycenaean representations of the human form. The correct method of rendering the eye in a profile figure is supposed to have been discovered in the age of Polygnotus; but in the celebrated fresco of the Knossus "Cup-bearer," to which Dr. Evans assigns the date 1400 B.C., the eye is not only rendered in a perfectly natural manner, but the modelling of the face and limbs compares favourably with fifth-century work. The lustrous black varnish, which was the peculiar pride of the Greek vase-painters of the great black-figure and red-figure periods, the secret of which has been lost for ages, is found in all its beauty far back in the Mycenaean age. The use of a ruddy pigment to denote the figures of men and white to signify women is said to have been invented by a successor of Polygnotus, but it was a common device of the Mycenaean artist, who used the same pigments for an exactly similar purpose. In the famous "Bull" fresco discovered at Tiryns by Schliemann in 1884 we find a convention which

was employed by the Greek artists down to the time of Polygnotus. The human figure who accompanies the galloping bull is supposed to be running alongside of him, but is represented by the artist above the animal, and with one leg apparently resting on the creature's back . Even in the rude productions of the neolithic people are to be observed the sprays and branches which in the hands of the Mycenaean artist became instinct with grace and charm.

We have already pointed out that the incised and filled designs of the neolithic artists were copied by the early Kamaraes pottery painters. In doing this they employed methods which became conventions of the great schools of Greek vase-painters who flourished in the fifth and fourth centuries. To get a dark ground they coated the vase with a black varnish, which grew ever more lustrous as the art developed. Upon this dark ground they painted the designs in lighter pigments. At a later period they forestalled the "black-figure" school by fabricating the vase of light-coloured clay, upon which they traced their figures in black varnish. At a still later period the artists of the "red-figure" school were anticipated, the vessel being coated with dark varnish, all except the figures, which were left in the natural colour of the ware. Thus, in addition to links between the Classic school and the Mycenaean, and between the Mycenaean and the Kamaraes or Cycladic, we have links which seem to stretch directly from the Classic period to the pre-Mycenaean.

It is practically certain that the art of the Mycenaeans was an indigenous growth. It owes little or nothing to the art of Egypt on the one hand or to that of Assyria on the other. Still less is it affected by Phoenician art, with which it was at one time identified. It is more naturalistic than the first; it is less harsh than the second ; and its infinitude of variety differentiates it from the last. Alike in conception, in treatment and in fidelity to nature, it differs from anything which preceded it or subsisted contemporaneously with it. Above all, it is animated by a spirit not easy to define; but which is evinced in the characteristic restraint and power of suggestion displayed by the Mycenaean artist. With all his profusion of detail, he never commits the error of disclosing too much of the vital part of his theme. The issue of all the combats which he portrays, whether of men or animals, is always in doubt, and the spectator has to work out the probable conclusion for himself.

This spirit is the spirit of the true artist, no matter in what medium it is expressed, and it is to be traced all through the art productions of the Mycenaean period. It is the same spirit which will be found dominating Greek art in Classic times. It is, finally, the spirit of the people whose more perfect fusion produced the Greek race of later days, and for it there is no other name than "Greek."

H.

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ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL AT ATHENS.

At the meeting held on March 10th Mr. Hill, the Director of the School, spoke on the subject of the excavations of the past year. He said that the principal work done during the summer was near the Peirene, where many difficulties were encountered owing to the abundance of water. A start was made in clearing out an old Greek cistern, which had been restored in Roman times after the original design, and continued in use during the Byzantine period. In the cistern were found some pieces of sculpture. Among these were several marble heads, one that of a woman, of Roman execution; another that of a copy of a statue of the 4th century B.C.; and a third the head of Dionysus Pogonophorus, of heroic dimensions.

The Court of Apollo.

On the north side of the Peirene there were discovered two more corners of the Court of Apollo, and thus its entire extent was ascertained. The court was four-cornered, with stoae, in the western and eastern portions of which were thirteen marble columns, and in the others ten. The remains of the columns are all well preserved, and the extent and configuration can consequently be realised with ease. These stoae belong, in all probability, to the first century A.D.

Near the Peirene have also been discovered three reservoirs, which received by small water-pipes the overflow water of the large spring. These reservoirs belong to different periods. One of them ends in a vaulted chamber constructed in a primitive manner of immense stones, which was apparently the method employed until the close of the Hellenistic period—possibly later. Between this particular reservoir and the Peirene there have been found the remains of a Greek six-pillared stoa in the Doric style facing towards the square of the Peirene, and exactly above this stoa a portico has been brought to light, which formed the termination of the Court of Apollo. On the north of the theatre a Roman road was discovered with stoae on both sides of it.

The Treasuries of Delphi.

Mr. W. Dinsmoor then spoke on the subject of the treasuries of Delphi, of which he gave a brief account. He next went on to describe the Court of Apollo, the development of which, he pointed out, could be divided into three periods. During the first, lasting from 650 to 550 B.C., nine treasuries had been erected in a small court near the archaic temple. Of these nine treasuries eight were in the Doric style and constructed of limestone; the ninth was in the Ionian style and built of marble.

Treasuries of The Second Period.

During the period that followed there were erected eleven treasuries. These were placed partly outside the older court, and were enclosed by a new polygonal wall, built between 513 and 506 B.C. Finally, about the year 450 the court called Ἑλληνικο was built of undressed stone, and this secured the addition of some new ground to the court. On these extensions five treasuries were

constructed, the last subsequent to 446 B.C. The Treasury of the Sicyonians, which is first mentioned by Pausanias, must have been built on the first foundations which are encountered when proceeding up the Sacred Way. Remains of a rectangular structure which were also found in the Treasury of the Sicyonians come from the ancient Treasury of the Syracusans, which was destroyed in 412 B.C. The remains immediately following, on the left side, called Cnidia, are really Cifnian, as is demonstrated by their situation and by the other architectural remains found there.

The Third Period.

The third in the series of the treasuries is the Theban, which must have been built upon the limestone foundations attributed, on the one hand by Homolle and Bourguet to Thebes, and on the other, by different authorities, to previous buildings or to the foundation of a sculptured monument. Regarding the Athenian Treasury there is no room for discussion. The Cnidian Treasury remained on the foundations attributed by Homolle to Corinth and by others to Clazomene. The Treasuries of the Potidians and Syracusans coincide with two buildings which are situated respectively on the west and the east of the first turning on the Sacred Way—namely, the Potidian Treasury, in the direction of what is now called the Boeotian or Theban Treasury, and the Treasury of the Syracusans near that attributed to the Megarians or Cnidians. Close by the Corinthian Treasury is that of the Clazomenians, which is described by Herodotus, and was pulled down about 450 B.C. On the south-eastern part was situated the Treasury of the Acanthians, which Plutarch saw. One of the two buildings on the site which is now known as Marmaria, the speaker believes, with Mr. Poulceur, to belong to Marseilles. The other is thirty years younger. An interesting problem in connection with these treasuries is that of the metope of the Treasury of the Cifnians, which is attributed by the French archæologists only to the Treasury of the Cnidians, while the Germans and Austrians divide it between the Treasury of the Cifnians and that of the Cnidians. After a study of the disposition which is shown by the trial shafts, Mr. Dinsmoor finds that Homolle rightly attributes all the remains to one single monument, ascribing them to the four sides of the structure.

Discoveries in Thessaly.

Mr. Arvanitopoulos, the Ephor of Antiquities in Thessaly, has been conducting excavations at Laspochorion, during the course of which he has discovered some Geometrical tombs, and near to them the Acropolis of Omolios and a temple with rich epigraphical and architectural remains. It is hoped that further excavations upon the spot will produce many archæological objects which will throw an important light upon the history of Omolios of Tempe. This was a strong city from a strategical point of view, and flourished at the beginning of the fifth century before Christ.

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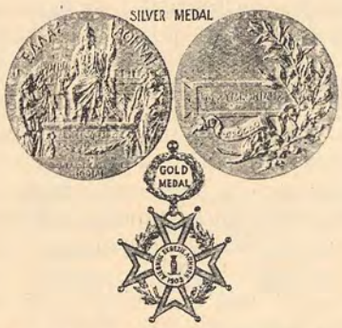

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MODERN GREEK LITERATURE.

POTATOES AND RELIGION.

AN EPISODE IN THE LIFE OF CAPODISTRIAS.

The interest created by the language question in Greece is not confined to that country, but is shared to a considerable extent by cultured people of the Western nations. As the HELLENIC HERALD *stands for the interests of the entire Greek people, it is not our desire to take sides in the controversy upon such a thorny subject. Consequently, from time to time, we have given as specimens of modern Greek literature examples of all the different shades of linguistic expression in use among the Greeks of to-day, ranging from the extreme demotic on the one hand to the most puristic form on the other. Of late, extracts in the demotic have chanced to figure somewhat prominently in this section; and one of our readers, Dr. Dawes, has forwarded the following extract, which in his opinion represents the model upon which the language of modern Greece should be formed. We have pleasure in giving this extract, together with Dr. Dawes's translation, representing as it does a pleasing incident in the life of the great Capodistrias, and one not altogether devoid of humour.*

Ὅτε ἀποκατέστη ἡ τάξις, καὶ ὁ ἐπαναστάτης Ἕλλην, ἀποκαμὼν τῶν πολέμων, τῶν στερήσεων καὶ κακουχιῶν, ἐπεδόθη εἰς τὴν ἐργασίαν του, τὸ ἔργον τῆς ἐλευθερίας του περαιώσας, ὁ μέγας του πατὴρ καὶ Κυβερνήτης, θέλων νὰ βελτιώσῃ τὴν Γεωργίαν, ἀπεφάσισεν, ὅτε ἀκόμη εἶχεν ἐν Αἰγίνῃ τὴν πρωτεύουσαν, νὰ διδάξῃ πρὸς τὸν γεωργικὸν κόσμον τὴν καλλιέργειαν τῶν γεωμήλων.—Ἔδωκεν ὅθεν ἐντολὴν ὅπως ἀποστείλωσιν αὐτῷ ἐξ Ἰταλίας ἀρκετὰς χιλίαδας ὀκάδας γεωμήλων, ἅτινα, εἰρήσθω, ἦσαν τότε πάντη ἄγνωστα ἡμῖν, καὶ τὸ τίμημα κατέβαλεν ἐκ τοῦ ἰδιαιτέρου του ταμείου.

Οἱ ἐναντία φρονοῦντες κατὰ τοῦ Καποδίστρια ἤρξαντο διαδίδοντες ὅτι ὁ Καποδίστριας εἶνε οὐ μόνον Λουθηρανιστὴς (ἤ ὡς κοινῶς ἐλέγετο Ἀλούτερος), ἀλλὰ καὶ διὰ τῆς ἀντιθρησκευτικῆς καὶ ἀσεβοῦς πράξεώς του, τοῦ νὰ διδάξῃ τὴν καλλιέργειαν τῆς πατάτας, θά κάμῃ ὅλους τοὺς Ὀρθοδόξους χριστιανοὺς "Αλούτερους." Ἡ πατάτες, κατὰ τοὺς ἐχθροὺς τοῦ Καποδίστρια, ἦσαν ὁ ἀπηγορευμένος καρπὸς, οὗ καὶ μόνον ἁπλῆ γεῦσις ἤθελεν ὁδηγήσει τὸ χριστεπώνυμον πλήρωμα εἰς τὰ ἀπύθμενα σκότη τῆς Κολάσεως, ἔνθα ὁ κλαυθμὸς καί ὁ βρυγμός τῶν ὀδόντων!

Οἱ ἀρτιγέννητοι Ἕλληνες, πληροφορηθέντες τὰ γεγονότα, καὶ ἰδίᾳ οἱ Αἰγινῆται, οἵτινες εἶδον τοὺς σάκκους τῶν γεωμήλων χύδην ν' ἀποταμιεύωνται προχείρως εἰς τὴν προκυμάιαν τῆς Αἰγίνης, χάριν εἰς τὰς ραδιουργίας τῶν ἐχθρῶν καὶ τὸ ἀμόρφωτον αὐτῶν, ἐν συλλληγηρῷ ἐπιβλητικῷ ἐζήτουν τὴν ἀποπομπήν του ἐξ Αἰγίνης, ὡς προδότου τῶν πατροπαραδότων τῆς θρησκείας μας, βροντοφωνοῦντες; "Κάτω ὁ προδότης, Κάτω ὁ Ἀλοὺτερος, ὁ ὁποῖος μὲ τῆς πατάτες του θὰ μᾶς καταστρέψῃ τὸ θρήκευμα!!! . . . Κὰτω! . . . . ὁ ἄθεος!!! . . . ."

Ὁ Καποδίστριας, ἀκούσας τῶν φωνῶν τοῦ κορυβαντιῶντος πλήθους, ἔσπευσε πρὸς τὸν ἐξώστην, ἐνῷ τὸ πλῆθος, μαινόμενον ὡς αἱ πρὸ τῆς καταιγίδος ἀτυνήθεις βρονταί, ἐφώναζε "Κάτω ὁ Ἀλούτερος μὲ τῆς πατάτες του!!"

Ὁ Κυβερνήτης, ἀπαθὴς θεατὴς τῶν γενομένων, ἐδήλωσε πρὸς τὸ πλῆθος, ὅτι ἡ πατάτες εἶνε διὰ λογαριασμόν του καὶ ἀυχὶ δὶ ἀυτοὺς καὶ ἂς μὴ ματαιοπονοῦν!! Ταυτοχρόνως δὲ, κατά τὸ φαινόμενον μόνον ἔδωκεν ἐντόνους καὶ αὐστηρὰς διαταγὰς εἰς τοὺς διορισθέντας φύλακας τῶν γεωμήλων ὅπως συλλάβωσι καὶ ὁδηγήσωσιν εἰς τας φυλακὰς οἱονδήποτε, ὅστις ἤθελε φωραθῇ κλέπτης τῶν γεωμήλων τοῦ Κυβερνήτου!! Ἰδιαιτέρως ὅμως εἶπεν εἰς αὐτοὺς νὰ κάμουν πῶς δὲν βλέπουν τοὺς περιέργους παρατηρητὰς τῶν γεωμὴλων καὶ ν' ἀφήσουν ἀυτοὺς νὰ κλέπτουν!

Μετ ὀλίγας ἡμέρας ἡ προκυμαία ἐκενώθη! Τὰ γεώμηλα τὰ ἔφαγαν ὅλα οἱ Αἰγινῆται, καὶ σὺν τῇ ἑστιάσει ἐκείνων ἐπείσθησαν ὅτι δὲν ἔγιναν Ἀλούτεροι!!

Ὁ ἴδιος κόσμος, ὅστις ἦτο καὶ κατὰ τὴν κατὰ τοῦ Κυβερνήτου στάσιν, ὁ ἴδιος ἐκεῖνος ἤρχισε νὰ κρούῃ τοὺς κώδωνας τῶν Ἐκκλησσιῶν καὶ ἐκάλει τοὺς λοιποὺς εἰς γενικὴν συνάθροισιν, νὰ

When order had been restored and the rebel Greek, tired of wars, privations and hardships, resumed his business after having completed the work of freedom, his great father and Governor, wishing to improve agriculture, decided, at the time when he had his capital in Aegina, to teach the agricultural population the cultivation of potatoes. Consequently he gave an order that there should be despatched to him from Italy several thousand *okes* of potatoes, which, it must be mentioned, were at that time altogether unknown to us, and he defrayed the cost out of his own purse.

Those who were opposed to Capodistrias began to spread about a rumour that Capodistrias was not only a Lutheran (or, as it was commonly called, an Alouteros), but that by the anti-religious and impious act of teaching the cultivation of the potato he would make all the Orthodox Christians Lutherans. Potatoes, according to the enemies of Capodistrias, were the forbidden fruit, the mere taste of which would lead the Christian population to the bottomless darkness of Hell, where there is weeping and gnashing of teeth!

The newly emanciated Greeks, having been informed of what had happened, and especially the Aeginetans, who saw the sacks of potatoes being piled up in confusion for the time being on the quay of Aegina, owing to the intrigues of enemies and their own ignorance, in an imposing meeting attacked the great father, and with every form of disapproval demanded his recall from Aegina as the betrayer of the traditions of our religion, loudly shouting: "Down with the Lutheran who with his potatoes is going to destroy our religion! . . . . Down! . . . . The Atheist! . . . ."

Capodistrias, hearing the cries of the frenzied mob, hastened to the balcony, whilst the crowd shouted: "Down with the Lutheran and his potatoes!" like unusual thunderings before a storm.

The Governor, a calm spectator of what was taking place, informed the crowd that the potatoes were for his own account, and not for them, so they need not trouble themselves in vain! And at the same time, but only in pretence, he gave emphatic and strict orders to the appointed keepers of the potatoes to arrest and take to prison anyone who should be caught in the act of stealing the Governor's potatoes! But privately he told them to pretend not to see the curious observers of the potatoes and to allow them to steal!

After a few days the quay was empty! The Aeginetans had eaten all the potatoes, and on their feasting on them had convinced themselves that they had not become Lutherans! The same people who had taken part in the revolt against the Governor, the very same people now began to ring the bells of the churches and called the rest to a general meeting to express their gratitude to the Governor!

διαδηλώσουν τὴν εὐγνωμοσύνην των πρὸς τὸν Κυβερνήτην!! Ἡ Κοσμοπλήμμυρα ἐκκινεῖ ὑπὸ τὰς ζητωκραυγὰς καὶ τὰ θούρια καὶ οὕτω ἔξωθι τοῦ ἀνακτόρου τοῦ Κυβερνήτου φθάνει.—"θέλουμε, πατέρα μας, πατάτες!! Σῶσόν μας, πατέρα, καὶ ἂς ὄψονται! . . . . ὅσοι μᾶς ἔβαλαν στὰ λόγια!! . . . .

Πρὸ τοιούτων παρακλήσεων δι'οὐρανομήκων κραυγῶν, ὁ Κυβερνήτης, ἐξελθὼν ἔνδακρυς, ὑπεσχέθη εἰς τὸ πλῆθος νέαν προμήθειαν γεωμήλων!! διὰ τοῦ ἰδιαιτέρου του ταμείου! Συνεχώρησε τοὺς πταίσαντας, διέλαμψεν ἡ ἀλήθεια, καὶ ἡ καλλιέργεια τῶν γεωμήλων ἤρχισεν ἔκτοτε ἐν Ἑλλάδι.

The crowd of people moved along with cheers and songs, and thus came outside the Governor's palace. "Father, we want potatoes! Save us, father, and they shall see . . . . who caused us to come to words! . . . ."

By these entreaties, expressed in tones that rent the air, the Governor was moved, and came out and promised to the crowd a new supply of potatoes at his own expense! He pardoned those who were in fault, truth triumphed, and the cultivation of potatoes began in Greece from that time!

THE IONIAN BANK.

A SATISFACTORY REPORT.

THE general meeting of the Ionian Bank, Limited, was held at the offices of the company in London, on Tuesday, March 14th, 1911. The balance-sheet and profit and loss account submitted was a very satisfactory document, showing as it did a steady rate of progress for 1910, as compared with preceding years. After paying all working expenses, rebates, income-tax and interest on deposits, there is left a balance of £32,837, which is again raised to £35,887 by the addition of the amount carried forward from last year after paying interest. Of this sum of £35,887 there has been transferred to the reserve fund £10,966, leaving £24,921 to be carried forward. This compares favourably with the £21,981 brought forward last year. The reserve fund has now been raised from £100,000 to £114,000. Dividends were declared at the rate of 4s. 6d. per share on the fully-paid shares, making 7 per cent. per annum for 1910, and a pro rata distribution of 7 per cent. per annum on the new partly-paid shares.

The meeting was presided over by Mr. J. J. Stavridi, in the absence of Mr. Falconer Larkworthy, the Chairman, who, at the request of the directors, had undertaken a journey to the East with the view of consolidating the position of the bank there. Owing to the great experience and proved business ability of Mr. Larkworthy nothing but the best results can be expected from his mission. The address which Mr. Larkworthy should have delivered to the meeting was in his absence read by Mr. Stavridi. It alluded at the outset to the satisfactory character of the report and balance-sheet.

The business of the meeting was preceded by an intimation that the directors had, on behalf of the company, sent an expression of sympathy with the Royal Family on the occasion of the death of King Edward, and a gracious response to their message had been returned. The Chairman then reviewed the general situation which obtained during last year, and pointed out that the state of politics, crops, the home money market and the international monetary situation had all conspired to create a prosperity which has never been equalled. The report then dealt with the cotton trade in particular, because, as the Chairman said, the prosperity of the bank is now so largely interested in that great staple.

Having dealt with the subject of banking throughout the world, the Chairman then turned to the domain of politics, and proceeded to discuss the situation in Turkey, and the manner in which the bank's interests were likely to be affected by the trend of events there. He said:—

"Whilst it is right that politics, from a party point of view, should find no place in any observations that may be made from this chair, yet the adverse influence of the political situation, or what is called the Turkish Question, on the welfare of Greece, and indirectly on that of the interests of the shareholders of this bank, is so great, that I cannot help expressing my regret that the political and social questions of Greece, the humanitarian problems of the Balkans, and the financial and political exigencies of Turkey should be so mixed up, and react upon each other, as is the case at present.

"The unanimity with which the whole Turkish nation co-operated to bring about constitutional reform was a great surprise to the world, as if the civilisation of Europe had, all of a sudden, acted abnormally, and a new force had manifested itself. For a time this surprise strengthened into admiration, when it was believed that home legislation, tending to the destruction of existing abuses, and the improvement of the finances, would occupy their attention; but reaction came, and with it disappointment to that nation's wellwishers.

"All that has since occurred goes to show that hindrances of some kind have arisen, and that the tyranny of the past has only given way to another form of oppressive force, and that constitutional government, as we understand it, does not exist in the Ottoman Empire. The leakages which occurred in the Customs duties, it is said, have been partially stopped and other important reforms begun, but there have been no progressive economies to speak of, and the deficiencies of the last and existing financial years are about ten millions sterling, and about one-third of the total expenditure represents money spent, or to be spent, on the Army and Navy. . . .

"The late protracted debates in the Turkish Chamber, showing, as they do, a greater freedom from aggressive tendencies, and that many of the deputies are alive to the adverse tendency of the Government's home and foreign policy, and also the course of the December elections in Greece have had a reassuring effect on public opinion, and are a promise that the experiences of the last two years are only a temporary check to that satisfactory economic development which has been the rule in Greece for many years, and to the interests of the bank in that field."

Turning to Greece, the Chairman touched upon the proposed reforms, and added one word of warning, which, coming from such an authoritative source, will not fail to be noted in the proper quarter. He said:—

"The Premier, Mr. Venizelos, promises sweeping reforms, which include relief to the poor by altering the incidence of taxation; and Mr. Alexandris, Minister of Education, announces that irrigation works, on an extensive scale, will be provided for agriculturists in Thessaly, and that the agrarian system will be reformed. It is proposed that this reform should be assisted by a Mortgage Bank.

"As long as the basis upon which advances are made is the *productive* value of the land, and not its nominal or purchase value, and the personal element is maintained as a super-added guarantee,

and an adequate margin required, success may attend the operations of such an institution; but so many instances have occurred of mortgage banks being based on a faulty system, that it is well that projectors should be warned. . . .

"The question of emigration is a vitally important one to Greece, for during the last few years staggering figures have been recorded by the American Ministry of Commerce and Agriculture as to the immigration of Greeks into the United States. It appears, although not necessarily direct from Greece itself, that from the year 1899 to the end of June, 1910, the immigrants of Greek nationality amounted to 214,458. Having regard to the small population of Greece, this is much to be lamented, as withdrawing from active employment and enterprise so many able-bodied men; but there are compensations in the facts that, when these emigrants are prosperous abroad, they remit part of their savings to their relations at home, and frequently return with a competence and settle down."

The address then dealt succinctly with the position in Egypt, reviewing the progress and prospects of the great cotton industry in that country, the progress of irrigation works, and the development of the Sudan. We are glad to learn that the business of the bank in Egypt is progressing quite satisfactorily, and the bank hopes soon to be settled in its new premises at Alexandria, which are nearing completion.

Towards the conclusion of the meeting votes of thanks were proposed to the Committee of Directors in Athens, the members of the Local Boards and to the staff for their services during the year. When these had been carried the Chairman was thanked for the able manner in which he had conducted the business of the meeting, and the proceedings then terminated.

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REORGANISATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ATHENS.

CREATING A SECOND UNIVERSITY.

IN the comparatively short term of its existence the new Greek Government, amongst its other beneficent projects for the reorganisation of the different branches of the administration, submitted to the Chamber a scheme for reorganising the elementary, intermediate, and higher education of the country. The favour with which this scheme has been received by the public reflects great credit upon the Minister of Education, who is responsible for its inception. As the schemes of elementary and intermediate education may not prove of such interest to our readers as that for higher education, we propose to omit consideration of the first and second at present and devote our remarks exclusively to the last.

Two separate universities have been called into existence, each of which will be independent of the other, although there will be but one rector and one senate for both. The National University will still retain its title, but will be confined to the schools of Medicine and Natural Science. The other will be called the Capodistrian University, and will comprise the schools of Theology, Philosophy, and Law.

The NATIONAL UNIVERSITY will have 46 professors, 30 of whom will be regular and 16 extraordinary. In the MEDICAL SCHOOL the regular chairs will be the following: (1) Descriptive Anatomy; (2) Experimental Physiology; (3) Pathological Anatomy; (4) Forensic Medicine; (5) Pharmacology and Toxicology; (6) Public Health and Microbiology; (7) Midwifery and Gynaecology; (8) Skin and Venereal Diseases; (9) Ophthalmology; (10 and 11) Pathological Clinics; (12 and 13) Surgical Pathology; (14) Nosology; (15) Topographical Anatomy; (16) Diseases of Children.

To the MEDICAL SCHOOL are attached the following clinics: Two pathological, two surgical, one for children, one for midwifery, one for eye diseases, one for venereal and skin diseases, one phrenological, and one for special nosology. In addition, there are all the laboratories for the practical exercise of the students. There has also been created a special school of dentistry which did not exist before. In the Medical School is also incorporated the school of Pharmacology.

In MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL SCIENCE the chairs will be—(1 and 2) Physics, (3) Organic Chemistry, (4) Inorganic Chemistry, (5) Geology and Palaeontology, (6) Mineralogy, (7) Zoology, (8) Botany, (9) Pharmaceutical Chemistry, (10) Analysis, (11) Astronomy and Meteorology, (12) Analytical Geometry, (13) Theoretical Engineering, (14) Algebra and Mathematics.

In the CAPODISTRIAN UNIVERSITY the regular chairs will be distributed as follows: SCHOOL OF THEOLOGY (1) Introduction to and Interpretation of the Old Testament, Hebrew Language and Hebrew Archæology; (2) Introduction and Interpretation of the New Testament, Biblical History, and Encyclopædical Theology; (3) Ecclesiastical History, Ancient, Mediæval, and Modern; (4) Patrology and Christian Archæology; (5) Christian Ethics; (6) Practical Theology and Symbolics; (7) Canonical Law.

The SCHOOL OF LAW, which by the new organisation comprises also a school of Political Science, contains the following chairs: (1 and 2) Roman

Law; (3) Civil Law; (4) Penal Law; (5) Commercial Law; (6) Political Jurisprudence; (7) Constitutional Law; (8) Public and Private International Law; (9) Political Economy; (10) Administrative Law; (11) Ecclesiastical Law and Orthodox Church Government.

SCHOOL OF PHILOSOPHY: (1, 2, and 3) Ancient Greek Literature; (4) Latin Literature; (5) Glossology; (6) General History; (7) History of the Greek Nation; (8) Greek Mythology, Archæology, and History of Ancient Greek Religion; (9) Philosophy; (10) History of Philosophy; (11 and 12) Ancient Art and Inscriptions; (13) Pedagogy.

Six chairs have also been created in this university for the teaching of the following foreign languages, viz.: French, English, Italian, German, Turkish, and Albanian. As regular professor anyone can be elected who has held the diploma of the corresponding university for at least ten years, and who has published important treatises on subjects concerning the branch of science for the chair of which he is a candidate. One of these treatises at least must be original.

As extraordinary professors there may be elected candidates holding the diploma of either of the Greek universities or of a recognised foreign university for at least five years, and who have successfully passed the stipulated examinations. The maximum number of extraordinary professors in the Capodistrian University is fixed at 15—viz., eight for the school of law, two for theology, and five for philosophy. The professors of the school of law are prohibited from pleading in the law courts, except before the Areopagus and the Council of State. They are also prohibited from holding private courses of instruction or receiving any remuneration for the special courses of the university.

The ordinary professors are to retire from the service of the university on the completion of their seventieth year, when they are entitled to a pension equal to their salary if they have put in 30 years' service.

The clauses relating to the education of the students are a good deal stricter than hitherto, both with reference to entrance examinations, renewal of matriculation, and penalties for offences. The examinations, both oral and written, are partial and general. The partial take place at the end of each year; the general at the end of the university course. No student is allowed to matriculate for any session after the first unless he has passed the examinations of the preceding session. Those who fail at the annual examinations can present themselves again after six months, and only those who have successfully passed the examinations of the last course can present themselves as candidates for the diploma.

The examiners must be professors of the corresponding school, and be present throughout the entire examination. Anyone who holds the diploma may receive the degree of Doctor by submitting to the governing body a written treatise on some subject appropriate to the school to which he belongs. The governing body will then select one of the other professors to draw up a report, which will have to be presented within two months of the treatise being submitted. If the treatise is approved, the candidate must appear in person and support it verbally. If this is done satisfactorily, the candidate receives the diploma, after taking the required oath. The professors of surgery, gynæcology, and midwifery in the National University are obliged to retire at the age of 65; the others at 70, as in the Capodistrian University.

The creation of a new university at Athens, or rather the division of the existing university into two distinct portions, is due to a legacy left by a patriotic Greek called Dombolis for the purpose of founding a university 50 years after his death "at the then capital of the Greek nation." As there is already a university in Athens, it was felt that the purpose of the legacy could be best met by dividing and strengthening the old university, rather than by erecting a rival to it, thus weakening them both.

The scheme of reorganisation seems very practical and thorough, and if passed by the Assembly, as we hope will be done, should considerably raise the University of Athens both in value and in influence.

REVIEWS.

A MEDIÆVAL POMPEII.*

OF all the towns of Greece which suffered at the hands of the Turks during the War of Independence, few were more grievously injured than Mistra. The Turks, baffled in their efforts to overcome the heroic resistance of the garrison, wreaked their vengeance upon the defenceless town, and at the conclusion of the war there was scarce one of its buildings that had escaped destruction. From a prosperous place, with a population of well over 25,000, Mistra sank into pitiful insignificance, and so deadly in its effect was the blow that brought about her ruin that even after half a century of just government her population had not risen above 5,000 souls.

The richness and fertility of the surrounding country has since helped Mistra to recover some of the lost ground. The people, certain that they will now be permitted to reap the reward of their labour, have devoted themselves to agriculture with renewed energy, and extensive tracts of fertile land, which lay neglected at the time of the Turkish rule, have been brought under cultivation. Oil and grain are being produced in large quantities, and the silk industry is in a flourishing condition. The province, including as it does the fairest portion of Laconia, promises to become one of the most prosperous, as it is naturally one of the richest, of Greece. From the ancient acropolis that dominates the town of Mistra the eye can now wander amid grape vines, mulberries and oranges, over the plain of the Eurotas, to where the hills of Sparta appear on the horizon.

Although there is much of natural beauty in the environs of Mistra to delight the traveller, it is to the remains of its past greatness that attention will be principally devoted, for no other town in Europe presents such a faithful picture of the art and architecture of the Middle Ages. Founded at the beginning of the thirteenth century by William de Villehardouin, the place sprang rapidly into importance, and became the most populous town in the Morean peninsula. Under the rule of the despots of the Morea, who made it their capital, Mistra attracted some of the most capable among the architects and painters of the Middle Ages, and her churches, chapels and convents are splendid examples of Graeco-Byzantine architecture at its most flourishing period. Inside, the walls of these buildings are decorated with pictures of surpassing interest to the student who wishes to understand the later developments of Greek painting.

The book which Herr Struck has placed before us comes as a valuable help to the understanding

* "Mistra: eine mittelalterliche Ruinenstadt." Von Adolf Struck. (164 pp. Wien und Leipzig: A. Hartleben's Verlag. 1911.)

and correct interpretation of the story which Mistra has to relate. The knowledge which it purveys has been gleaned with German thoroughness, and is placed before the reader with even more than the average amount of German method. Herr Struck divides his book into two parts, the first of which deals generally with the Frankish-Byzantine age in the Morea, and the second with the town of Mistra proper.

The author begins by tracing the first slow movements of the stream of Western emigration which set towards the East in the Middle Ages, ultimately to submerge the whole of the Morean peninsula. The localities in which the Franks first obtained a footing in the Morea are next considered, and the great fortresses in which they established themselves are described with graphic detail. The subsequent extension of the Frankish power, and the battles in which their superior arms and organisation, and also perhaps their superior ferocity, overpowered the resistance of the natives are next dealt with and the author concludes his first section with an account of the rulers of Mistra, beginning in 1259 with Prince Constantine Palaeologus, the brother of the Emperor Michael VIII., and ending with Demetrius Dragazes who handed over the town to Mohammed in 1460.

In the second part of the book the author leads off with a general description of the remains of the ancient town and then passes on to a consideration of the ecclesiastical structures—churches, chapels, convents—in which the most interesting remains of Graeco-Byzantine art are to be found. The more important of the paintings contained in these edifices are illustrated by photogravures in the text; although well executed, these cannot, of course, convey any very definite idea of the impression which the pictures, with their brilliant and harmonious colouring, produce upon the spectator. The upper town and the citadel are next passed under review; and the author concludes with some very interesting and instructing reflections and a summary.

Although in his preface Herr Struck modestly disclaims the intention of producing anything beyond "a guide to the history of the remains of Mistra," the book goes a considerable length beyond the limits which the author has prescribed for himself. In its methodical marshalling of facts and its minute attention to detail it cannot but prove of value to the archaeologist, the art lover and the historian. Its charming descriptive passages, too, will not fail to interest and delight the general reader who understands the German language sufficiently well to follow the author in his strikingly poetic word-pictures of the natural beauties amid which Mistra lies framed.

The present book owes its inception to a journey which Herr Struck made through part of Laconia at the behest of the German Archæological Institute in Athens. A delay of some duration at Mistra directed his attention to the ruins of past greatness which he saw lying all around him, and gradually, he says, the beauty and significance of the ancient ruined town began to dawn upon him. Here was "an entire town, with its walls, houses, churches and institutions, with its streets, rivulets and squares, with its gardens, balconies and noble prospects, and the towering citadel crowning the whole. . . . It has furnished us with an array of memorials which are worthy to stand beside the most splendid Byzantine creations. The principles of town-planning, of architecture, and of painting will have new light cast upon them; the history of civilisation and economic questions will be stirred up anew. Mistra is in reality a Byzantine Pompeii."

In reading the book it is almost impossible not to be infected with some of Herr Struck's overmastering enthusiasm and we sincerely hope that the glowing expectations to which he has given expression in the above passage will be amply fulfilled when the ruins have been thoroughly explored.

The book is illustrated by over seventy excellent photographic reproductions, and there is a useful general index. At the end of the text there is a chronological table of the Princes of Achaia and the Despots of Mistra. A very full index to the literature of the subject is also appended, which should prove useful to those who wish to follow the subject beyond the limits of the present volume. H.

PRESS REVIEWS.

TURKEY'S MENACE TO THE BALKAN STATES.

We may already look upon Turkey as an important military Power, which will be able at no distant day to mobilise a force of 1,500,000 trained soldiers. It remains to be considered how the creation of this new and formidable military instrument destroys that balance of power which has hitherto existed in Europe. That a balance of power among the Balkan States did formerly exist is shown by the fact that even in the days of Abdul Hamid, when the Turkish army was a purely defensive force, it was possible to keep the peace.

The first consequence of Turkey's military activity is likely to be that the Balkan States most immediately threatened, Bulgaria, Greece, and Servia, will be compelled to increase their armies. The possible extent of such increase is, however, strictly limited, for each of these States is already doing its utmost in regard both to men and money. It seems, therefore, that it is only by joining forces that these three States can hope to obtain a substantial addition to their strength. It is common knowledge that their mutual jealousies have, up to the present time, rendered such an understanding impossible; it remains to be seen whether the difficulty will disappear under pressure of the Turkish menace.—*The Quarterly Review.*

THE FATE OF ALBANIA.

The policy of the Young Turks is the policy of the old Turks raised to a higher power. Its substance is Turkey for the Turks. Its instrument is the Army reorganised by General Von der Goltz Pasha and his successors, and provided by them with a number of well-trained staff officers, and with a small band of German officers to assist and inspire them. The policy of Turkey for the Turks or of an Ottoman National State based upon the Turkish nationality as well as upon Islam involves the suppression of all other nationalities that can possibly become dangerous. It is a continuation of the policy of Abdul Hamid, but with stronger methods. Just as the foreign policy of the Convention and of the Committee of Public Safety was the assertion with greater power of the foreign policy of the *Ancien Régime*, destined to be continued with still more effective means by Napoleon, so the Young Turks, having got rid of Abdul Hamid, whose suspicion of, and espionage upon, his Turkish subjects made him as well hated by them as by every other class in the country, find themselves enjoying the almost unanimous support of all the Turks in their policy of nationalisation. They therefore command far greater resources for the purpose than did the

deposed Sultan. The first effect of their reforms was to enable them to spend large sums upon the Army, to complete its equipment, to get rid of a number of incompetent officers, and to give the men practice in shooting and in manœuvres. The reform of the Army is the one real reform they have carried out, save and except the suppression of the spies, most of whom were killed. The Army is used to carry out the Nationalist policy. A part of the Army and its best General were entrusted with the execution of this policy in Albania, and two campaigns in that region were devoted to the disarming and "pacification" of the population.

The Albanians love their language and want to learn to read and write. The Turks have always been determined that they shall not learn to read and write in European characters, and that if they are to have books the letters used shall be those which the Turks have borrowed from their Arabian teachers. The question of the language and the alphabet is the one which unites all Albanians against the Turks. Though the civilisation of Albania is primitive, the race is the finest in the peninsula to the south of the Danube, and the men are brave and faithful beyond all their neighbours. Albanians have long been the most trusted by the Turks and by European travellers and sojourners in European Turkey. The Albanians, at any rate in the north, have never been compulsorily recruited for the Turkish service, though every Albanian is accustomed to bear arms and never parts from his rifle. These are the mountaineers whom the Young Turks, with their reformed Army, are bent upon subduing into Ottomans. The expeditions of 1909 and 1910 were carried on for the disarming of this armed population. The troops marched through Northern Albania from Prisrend to Scutari, confiscated arms, and burned towers, and it seems probable burned a good deal more than towers. At any rate, they left bitter resentment behind them.

This year the troops, Regulars and bashibazouks, or armed peasants without discipline, are again on the warpath, and the Albanians are fighting them. It is hard to believe that the clans can successfully resist well-armed and well-led battalions equipped with magazine rifles and aided by modern artillery. The Albanians have only themselves to rely upon. They have no friends among the Powers It is therefore probable that they will be left to their fate, which, if the Turks are strong enough, may be destruction or something scarcely distinguishable from it.—*The Morning Post.*

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NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE.

ASSETS, 31st October, 1910.	30th Oct., 1910. * Drachmae.		31st Sept., 1910. * Drachmae	
Funds { Cash	3,503,478	07	3,524,865	72
Funds { Ionian Bank, Bonds	506,345	—	356,680	—
Funds { Ditto, of one or two Drachmae	1,159,614	—	1,057,188	—
In Foreign Banks { Gold	40,508,361	52	43,580,591	74
In Foreign Banks { Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	160,357	83	173,713	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds { in gold ... Dr. 26,079,118.75; in paper ... Dr. 34,617,201.25	60,554,292	50	60,630,910	50
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,440,000	—	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,150,903	82	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	21,273,213	37	21,394,815	23
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,541,762	21	3,519,040	81
Advances on Securities	23,034,855	27	23,508,951	15
Advances on Merchandise	6,227,775	11	4,553,302	92
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	70,378,948	34	72,421,044	26
Loans to Communities, Harbours, and other legal bodies	46,181,948	83	46,264,436	98
*Agricultural Drafts	11,912,143	75	13,006,033	75
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,616,441	90	5,566,492	35
Shares in Local Companies	7,471,158	20	7,471,158	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds { Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece } Bank Bonds at 2½%	728,182	35	733,874	76
Bank and Premises	2,246,440	94	9,267,702	77
*Doubtful Debts	3,526,210	11	3,499,776	75
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,394.002	11	1,389,140	41
Sundry Accounts	2,574,379	37	2,373,619	64
Sundry Foreign Accounts	5,881,597	24	2,197,096	88
Redemption of State Participation in the Profits of the Bank	1,075,200	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	560,100	—	560,000	—
Commission for Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in Bank Bonds	50,000		50,000	—
Sundries	822,146	25	684,997	96
Dr.	407,307,84	49	408,230,112	84

LIABILITIES.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42; 2. For the account of the Bank Dr. 49,820,329.73	124,291,017	22	125,305,490	34
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	9,547,315	36	11,964,352	16
Deposits without Interest	19,691,782	95	21,069,671	56
Demand Notes	1,608,729	25	1,491,208	41
Unclaimed Dividends	228,430	—	284,035	—
International Financial Control { A/c of payment of Revenues affected } Gold Dr. 763,638.30; Notes Dr. 4,282,520.64	4,477,717	77	1,874,092	16
Service of the State Loans—Gold	640,396	80	705,659	05
Ditto, in Bank Notes	306,431	22	372,560	37
State Deposits—Gold	4,808	39	4,808	39
Ditto, Bank Notes	15,062	65	15,062	65
State Deposits { For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway } ... Gold ... Notes	160,357	83	173,713	83
Deposits at Interest	1,527	21	59,996	21
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%	119,098,362	26	118,799,336	18
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes at 2½%	40,574,160	—	40,571,160	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	20,367,900	—	20,367,900	—
Ditto, Bank Notes at 2½%	1,495,698	—	1,727,474	—
Savings Bank	267,345	—	280,142	50
Bills to be paid	13,418,013	18	13,275,501	83
Sundries	7,263,061	40	6,624,948	20
Dr.	407,307,846	49	408,230,112	84

* At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachma is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant,
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

Athens, 10th Nov., 1910.

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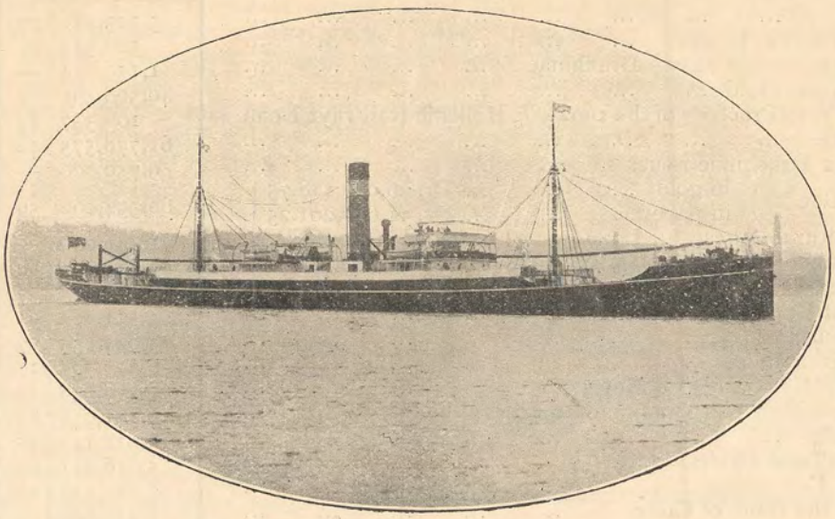

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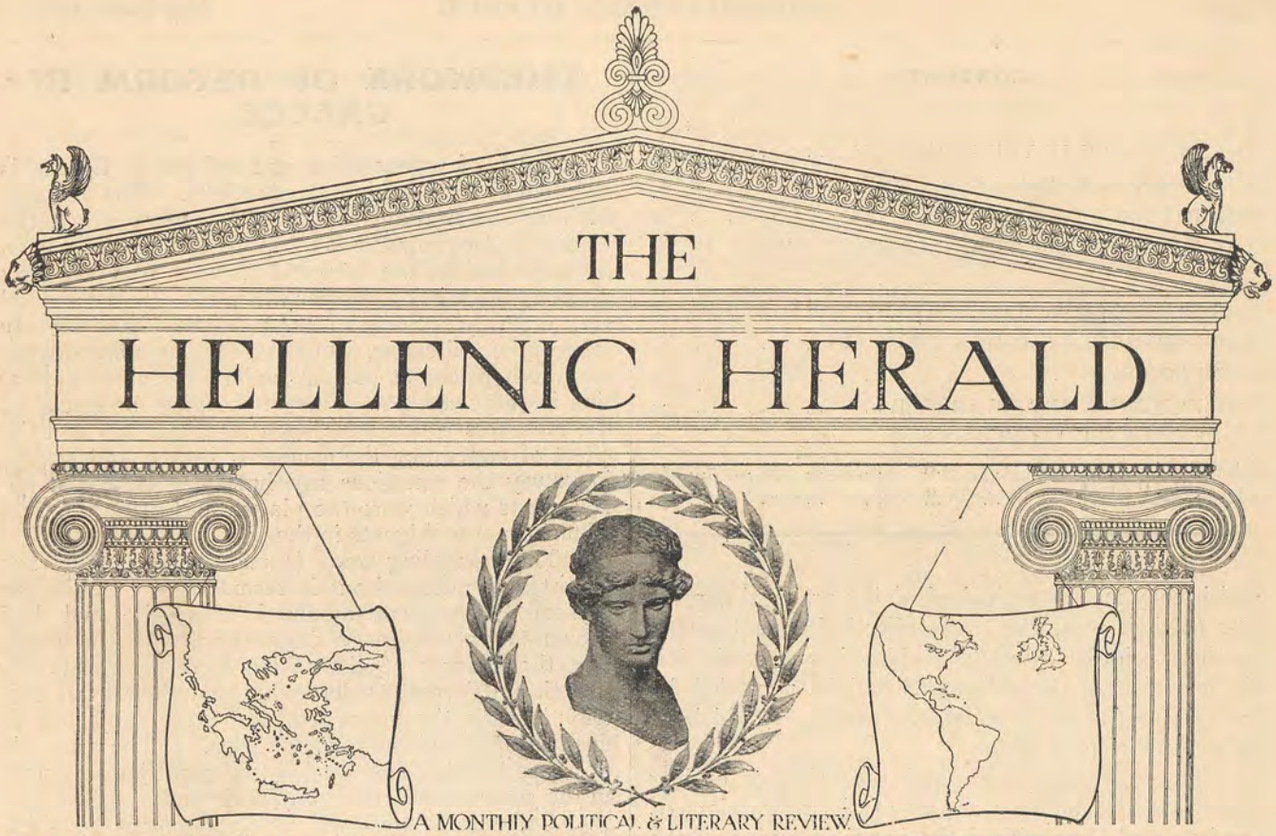

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THE DEADLOCK IN THE NEAR EAST.

THE Albanian difficulty, to which we directed the attention of our readers early in the present year, bids fair to develop, as we feared it would, into a very serious situation. Judging from the consensus of opinion, as expressed in the more responsible organs of the European press, as well as from the well-weighed and deliberately-uttered statements which have fallen from the lips of statesmen and diplomats representing the Great Powers, a speedy way out of the difficulty will have to be discovered by Turkey if she wishes to steer clear of complications which may imperil her existence.

As will be remembered, the trouble originated between the Government and the Malissori, one of the more warlike of the northern tribes. Owing to the lamentable want of tact displayed by the Young Turks in handling this comparatively unimportant outbreak, and the unnecessarily harsh and sometimes brutal treatment meted out to the Malissori, the latter became the recipients of a good deal of sympathy from the other Albanian tribes, and at the beginning of June in this year the Mirdites, a powerful Roman Catholic tribe whose territory lay adjacent to that of the Malissori, definitely threw in their lot with them. This fresh accession of strength not only had the effect of increasing the resistance offered by the insurgents to the Government, but, owing to the religious faith of the combatants, attracted much sympathy to their side from some of the European Powers, notably Austria.

Among the more important, if not actually the chief, of the influences which helped to precipitate the crisis, was the attitude of Montenegro. The people of this little state, owing to long-standing ties of friendship with the Albanians, undoubtedly assisted greatly in mitigating the hardships inflicted upon the latter by the Turks. While their lands were being devastated by the Imperial troops, countless numbers of the harried Albanians thronged across the Montenegrin frontier, where they were welcomed and treated hospitably. The Montenegrins, with so many examples of extreme suffering before them, clamoured incessantly for war; but the cool judgment of King Nicholas held their impetuosity successfully in check, and nothing was done to interrupt the nominally friendly relations subsisting between Montenegro and Turkey.

The help afforded to the Albanian refugees by the people of Montenegro undoubtedly had the effect of increasing the resistance offered to the Turks, and of blunting a little the severity of the measures by which Turkey hoped to crush the revolt. This could not, of course, be otherwise than displeasing to Turkey, who at length dispatched a threatening note to Montenegro, and began to mass an army on the Montenegrin frontier.

This precipitate move on the part of Turkey immediately brought into the field new and important elements, and showed at once with what forces Turkey would have to reckon if she persisted in her high-handed course of conduct. A very plainly worded protest was presented by Russia, who also demanded an assurance that no action of a nature unfriendly to Montenegro was contemplated or would be undertaken by Turkey. This occasioned much bitter feeling among the Turks, but any intention

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which they may have had of giving practical expression to their resentment was effectively counteracted by the receipt of a very plain hint from Austria that the coercion of the Albanians had been carried far enough, and more conciliatory measures would have to be employed in future.

These remonstrances had the effect of cooling somewhat the military ardour of the new rulers of Turkey, and they utilised the impending visit of the Sultan to the Plain of Kossovo as a reason for proclaiming a fortnight's amnesty, and offering a few trifling concessions to the Albanians. These were scornfully rejected, the Albanians in turn presenting a minimum list of the concessions which they would be prepared to accept. The chief of these were the following: A special governor to be appointed for Albania; the free use of the Albanian language as well as Turkish in the schools and public services; exemption from certain specified taxes during a limited period; the revenues of Albania to be devoted to the construction of urgently-needed roads and other public works; Albanian conscripts to be allowed to serve their time with the colours in Albania, and not despatched into remote regions.

These demands of the Albanians Turkey professes to be unable to grant, and the deadlock between the belligerents continues. Meanwhile the danger grows, and Turkey herself will be the chief sufferer unless, even now, at the eleventh hour, she grants judicious concessions and makes her peace with the Albanians.

Although the Albanian trouble is the most clamant question at present it is not only to the Albanians that the Turks will have to grant concessions if they wish the peace and security of their Empire to be assured. Other parts of Turkey are inhabited by races whose appeals for justice have been ignored too long. Although these sufferers have hitherto remained passive, human patience has its limits, and Turkey may, in the near future, find herself confronted not by one Albanian question, but by many. The claims of the Christian races in Turkey are by no means extravagant, and Turkey would be well advised to grant them while the door to negotiation remains unclosed. If she decides to do this she may, even now, stave off from herself a plainly impending fate; and should the Albanian trouble have the effect of inducing her to act in this way it will have proved to her, not a misfortune, but a blessing in disguise.

THE WORK OF REFORM IN GREECE.

THE work of regeneration and reform in Greece is proceeding steadily and satisfactorily. The revision of the Constitution, the primary object which the Venizelos Government set out to achieve, has been accomplished in the happiest manner, and the way cleared for a host of reforms which the country needed very urgently. Some of these reforms have already taken practical shape, while the measures embodying many others are at present under careful consideration in the Chamber. One of the most beneficial of the measures which have been legalised has had the effect of expediting the course of justice, and sweeping away the vexatious and harassing delays in the law-courts which were the plague and often the ruin of unfortunate litigants in the past.

The smuggling trade is another abuse that has almost been stamped out in recent days. Before the present Government assumed office the evil had grown to extraordinary dimensions, with the result that the finances of the nation were grievously depleted, and honest traders who paid their legal contributions to the upkeep of the State subjected to unfair and ruinous competition. The notable decrease in this abuse has led to a great improvement in the condition of the public exchequer.

Collaterally with the accomplishment of these salutary measures there proceeded the work of reorganising and strengthening the army and the navy. For this purpose the services of English experts, under the leadership of Rear-Admiral Tufnell, were secured for the fleet, while the care of the land forces was entrusted to a body of French instructors with General Eydoux at their head. The beneficial result of this important step is apparent in the greater zeal and regard for discipline manifested by the men of both the army and the navy. The executive machinery of the State has also been overhauled, and while on the one hand the position of public officials and civil servants has been rendered more secure of tenure, on the other, steps have been taken to obtain the greatest possible amount of attention from each of them to the affairs of the particular department with which he was required to deal. Thus an amount of confidence has been created which has had a salutary effect upon the business of the country.

These reforms will soon be followed by others scarcely less far-reaching in their effect. At the present moment the Chamber is discussing an improved scheme of education for the country, not the least important item in which is to be the thorough reorganisation of the university. A much fuller degree of local self-governing power is also to be granted to the communes or boroughs than they have hitherto possessed, and this power, if properly used, will lay the foundation of a regenerative movement in the country districts. These reforms and others which are pending will, we believe, infuse an amount of new life and vigour into the country which will materially assist in carrying her to her rightful place among the nations.

One of the chief reasons which prompt us to this sanguine view of the future is our confidence in the personality of the man who is responsible for the execution of the programme of reform. No one can ignore the fact that Mr Venizelos has complete faith in his own powers, and this confidence in himself is the begetter of confidence on the part of others. So far, his estimate of his ability to deal with a situation of extreme difficulty has been completely justified, and the remainder of the work to which he has set his hand will no doubt be accomplished in the same thorough manner as that which has preceded it.

THE PATIENCE OF CYPRUS.

AT the present time, when the tendency of British statesmen is to grant a larger measure of self-government to the Colonies and Dependencies of the Crown, it may not be irrelevant to point to the island of Cyprus as a portion of the British Empire which appears to have been overlooked when any of these favours were being distributed. When consideration is taken of the fact that Cyprus has been for 33 years under British rule, the amount of political and social liberty enjoyed by the population, and their progress in material prosperity during that period, will strike an ordinary English citizen as being remarkably meagre. What renders the backward condition of Cyprus more especially noteworthy is the fact that when the island was taken over from Turkey in 1878, among the objects which the British Government professed to have in view were the full development of the natural resources of the island and the training of the Cypriote people in self-governing institutions, so that by its prosperity and liberty the island should become a pattern and an object-lesson to the adjacent portions of the badly-managed Turkish Empire.

The people of Cyprus, who are by an overwhelming majority Greeks in language, in blood, and in sentiment, have all the natural instinct for politics which distinguishes their countrymen in other parts of the world. When the change from Turkish to British rule was effected, they descried in the future bright visions of what the island should become under the enlightened government of a race which is regarded throughout the world as a pattern of constitutional liberty, which had so frequently demonstrated its sympathy with the Hellenes, and which furnished so many recruits to the ranks of those who nobly fought for Greek liberty half a century before. Unhappily, very few of these golden anticipations have been fulfilled. Of the Cypriotes it must in justice be said that whatever causes contributed to this unhappy failure, none of the blame can be attached to any ill-timed or violent action on their part. They were ever careful to do nothing which should alienate the sympathy of their new protectors. They have been patient and peaceful, and their methods of calling attention to their grievances have never been anything but constitutional. Yet they still remain under disabilities which loyal subjects are not accustomed to suffer under the British flag. Cynical people have sometimes asserted that the Cypriotes have been, if anything, too submissive, that had they been a little less patient and more annoyingly clamorous they would not have had to wait so long for reforms.

What must be regarded as the main grievance of the people of Cyprus, and the one which is responsible for most of the others, is the distinctly unrepresentative character of the Legislative Council. This body is composed of six members nominated by the Government, and three Ottoman and nine Greek representatives. The Governor officiates as president, and has a casting vote. It will thus be seen that any measure which embodies reforms calculated to advance the general welfare of the islanders, four-fifths of whom are Greek, can be thwarted by the Turkish deputies, who are opposed on racial grounds to any concessions being given to the Greeks, throwing in their lot with the conservative element as represented by the official nominees. And this is what usually happens. The casting vote of the president gives the conservatives a permanent majority of one, and the progressive proposals of the Greek deputies are usually made in vain. There is no doubt whatever as to what the composition of the Legislative Council would be if the right of selecting their own representatives were conceded to the people of Cyprus, as is done in all countries where there is any pretence to constitutional government.

But it would be vain to attempt to make the composition of the Legislative Council of Cyprus more representative of the people for whom it is supposed to legislate, without conferring upon it some of the powers of a real legislative body. At present it occupies a position somewhat resembling the fifth wheel of a wagon. The administration of the affairs of the island is entirely in the hands of the British officials, who do not require to pay any attention to the results of the Legislative Council's deliberations unless they like. The Council may decide to pass into law any measure it chooses, but no such measure is ever applied unless it pleases the English officials to carry it into effect. On the other hand, there are often forced upon the islanders laws to which the Legislative Council has never given its consent, or indeed been consulted with regard to them at all. The official element is thus all-powerful in Cyprus, and the situation, already sufficiently galling to a freedom-loving people, is further aggravated by the fact that there is no obligation upon the Administration to account to the people or their representatives for the way in which the revenues of the island are administered. The Cypriotes have no power to say what proportion of the money which they contribute, or whether any of it, shall be used for education, defence, development, or any other purpose. All these matters are decided for them by the English officials.

A strong point is made by the Cypriotes of the backward state of education in the island. Like all the Greek race, education is regarded by them as almost as much of a necessity as bread and butter, and much dissatisfaction is often expressed at the way in which the educational needs of the island are neglected. How far Cyprus has gone back in education may be seen by a comparison with the island of Crete, which has a population almost equal in number. In this comparison it must be remembered that Crete has continually been distracted by warfare and political turmoil, while Cyprus has enjoyed the blessings of peace under a progressive and enlightened government. All the advantages of the comparison should therefore lie with Cyprus.

When we come to the actual figures it will be found that, despite all her seeming advantages, Cyprus cannot compare with Crete at all in the matter of education. Last year there were in Cyprus only 580 schools, as against 656 in Crete. Attending these schools were, in Cyprus, 29,579 pupils; in Crete, 33,134, the slightly larger average attendance in Cyprus testifying to the eagerness of the Cypriotes for instruction. The number of teachers employed in the schools of Cyprus was 682; in Crete there were 933, a proportion of about 43 pupils to each Cypriote teacher, as against 35 to each of his Cretan confrères. The amount contributed from Government funds to the cause of education in Cyprus was £6,000. The entire sum required for education in Crete, amounting to £32,200, was defrayed out of the revenues of the island. The inhabitants of Cyprus have to raise about £16,000 every year if they wish to save their island from lapsing into ignorance and retrogression.

This is a view of things which is not often presented to the English reader. That Crete, with all its manifest drawbacks, should be in a better position with regard to the blessings of education than an island which has been for over thirty years an integral part of his own Empire, will come to him as something of a revelation. Yet there is the fact, and the official figures prove it. What figures cannot demon-

strate, but which is nevertheless a most important consideration, is the fact that the Cretans possess full power to decide as to the character of the teaching provided in their schools. The Cypriotes are already subjected to some slight degree of restriction in this respect, and the Administration make it a condition of any further grants that a greater degree of this power shall be placed in their hands.

One aspect of the financial question of which the Cypriote people complain bitterly is the payment of the tributary tax to Turkey. When the island was transferred in 1878, the British Government agreed to pay to Turkey, as compensation, the amount by which the latter Power was supposed to benefit from her possession of the island, Turkey's claim being that there was usually an excess of revenue over expenditure. The amount of this surplus, based upon the average of the five preceding years, was fixed at £92,000 per annum. But the Cypriotes assert that this sum is excessively high, because the five years from which the average was drawn were an unusually prosperous period in the island's history, and that the general average would not work out at nearly so high a figure. In some bad years, it is claimed, Turkey did not derive one penny of revenue from Cyprus at all.

Why the Cypriotes should raise objection to the payment by England to Turkey of any amount of compensation, so long as the possession of the island appeared to be worth it, will seem rather mysterious to the ordinary mortal, until he learns that England does not herself pay the whole of this amount, and that almost the half of it is levied upon the people of Cyprus. Of the £92,000 paid every year as compensation to Turkey, £42,000 have to be found by the Cypriotes, whether the season be a good or a bad one. In years when the harvest has been scanty, the burden thus thrust upon the islanders becomes heavy indeed. The islanders complain, too, that the cost of administration is much higher now than it was in the old days, and that the resources of the island are constantly crippled in the effort to raise large yearly salaries for the foreign officials. They contend, and not without reason, that any surplus which may appear in the budget of Cyprus should be expended for the benefit of the island, and that England, having agreed to pay compensation to Turkey for the transference of the island, should meet this charge out of her own exchequer if the possession of Cyprus is as valuable as British statesmen seem to think. If the island is not worth that expenditure, then the Cypriotes claim that Britain should give them leave to shoulder their own burdens, and work out their destiny in the way which seems good to them.

The obvious reply to all the remonstrances of the people of Cyprus is that England holds the island for strategic reasons, and that military considerations must take precedence over all others. But surely the hindering of the development of an intelligent and progressive people, and the neglect of the natural riches of a large and fertile island like Cyprus, are not necessitated by the military policy of the English nation. There is no apparent reason why the economic development of the island and the progress of its inhabitants should not go hand in hand with military efficiency. The two are not necessarily antagonistic, and for our part we are inclined to believe that mere neglect, rather than any settled line of policy, is at the root of the troubles of Cyprus It is simply not the business of anyone in England to advocate the claims of the Cypriote people, and their cry for the redress of their grievances is too far off to be heard in London save by the official ear. The military point of view has, in consequence, been the only one that received any consideration.

In these democratic days it is surely not too much to hope that the eager desire of the people of Cyprus for real representative institutions will be listened to with sympathy and be gratified in the not distant future. One can hardly conceive of the English people, once they have been put in possession of the full facts of the case, refusing such an elementary right to a community which by its patience and restraint has proved itself so well able to exercise it.

THE DEMANDS OF THE CHRISTIAN RACES IN TURKEY.

A JOINT PETITION TO THE GOVERNMENT.

We give below the translation of an important document presented in identical terms by the heads of the Christian nationalities in Turkey, which, while emphasising the disabilities under which the Christian races labour, also conveys interesting information regarding the internal administration of the Empire. It was presented by the Greek Œcumenical Patriarchate, the Bulgarian Exarchate, and the Armenian Patriarchate, who jointly represent the great proportion of the Christian races existing under Turkish rule. It is only a short time, comparatively, since these religious bodies were in direct conflict with one another, and the seriousness of the situation may be gauged from the effect which it has had in inducing these bodies, who were previously in opposition, to make common cause in defence of their rights.

We do not think that our readers will be able to find in the demands thus formulated any that are not eminently reasonable, and those who are best acquainted with the situation in Turkey will agree that these demands represent the minimum of the reforms that must be granted if the peace and security of the Turkish Empire are to be placed on a permanent footing.

Upon many occasions the Œcumenical Patriarchate presented to the Constitutional Government, collectively as well as in detail, the protests of the Greek nation against the policy applied to the educational system and the conscription of Christians. This policy has been shown to be opposed both to the equality proclaimed by the Constitution and to the conditions of the existence of Christian races in a State which has as its religion the Mussulman and its official language the Turkish — conditions which have been consecrated and confirmed for centuries by official Government and international acts under the name of Privileges.

Unfortunately, the Government sometimes does not return an answer at all to these remonstrances, and at others it refuses to recognise their existence; and if ever it replies in sympathetic terms, the words are never followed by deeds.

Nevertheless, as has been repeatedly pointed out, the educational question has a direct bearing upon the existence of our nation, while the conscription laws affect both the life of their children and the happiness of their families. These families, under the present conscription law, see their children expatriated in thousands. These two questions, consequently, do not admit of any considerable delay in their solution, and their suspension exhausts the love of the Christian races towards the Ottoman State, while their settlement in a spirit of respect for the rights of the races other than Turkish, and for the establishment of equal political rights between them, is the only real basis for the security of the present régime and for the strength and prosperity of the State.

Influenced by these considerations, and being unwilling to abandon all hope of a brighter future, the Œcumenical Patriarchate, as much for the nation

as for the State, decided to submit once more the following demands to the Government: —

THE EDUCATIONAL QUESTION.

(1) Permission to be given to all those schools which have till now been working without receiving the sanction of the Government; and in future, whenever a school is opened, notice to be sent to the Government and the necessary permission to be granted.

(2) The curricula of the schools to be drawn up and ratified by the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans.

(3) The general curriculum of the communal schools to be submitted to the Ministry of Education, and the status of the schools to be defined and ratified. Consequently, so long as this curriculum is not changed, it will not be necessary to issue every year separately a special curriculum for each school.

(4) The diplomas and certificates of the teachers to be examined and ratified by the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans, so that their capabilities as teachers may be certified. The permits granted to them for this purpose to be regarded as valid by the Ministry of Education.

(5) The permits of those teachers who are liable to be drawn for military service will be ratified by the Ministry of Education, so that those teachers may enjoy the same discharge from military service as the Mussulman teachers.

(6) The Government is not to raise obstacles to the exercise of the duties of the school inspectors who are appointed by the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans and are provided with the same permits as the teachers, in order that they may inspect the inner working and the teaching of the communal schools.

(7) Until a sufficient number of Ottoman subjects are available as teachers, foreigners to be allowed to teach as well.

(8) The Government Inspector of Education to perform his inspection of a school after notice has been sent to the spiritual head responsible to the Government.

(9) The inspectors and directors of education to examine the teaching in the schools, and should they perceive that any unsuitable lesson is being given, or that any teacher is teaching without a permit, in Constantinople the Minister of Education, and in the provinces the local authorities, shall come to an understanding with the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans, and by them the teaching of such lessons will be forbidden, and the teachers without permits will be dismissed.

(10) In case of any disagreement about a school arising between the Inspector of Education and the spiritual authority, no action to be taken locally in regard to that school until the question has been finally settled in the capital between the Ministry of Education and the Patriarchate.

(11) All information regarding the statistics of the communal schools to be sought from the spiritual heads.

(12) The diplomas and certificates granted to the graduates of communal schools to be drawn up in the language of the graduates, and to be ratified by the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans. The translations of these documents into Turkish, which are made when they are to be submitted to the Government, are to be considered as valid after they have been ratified by the Patriarchate and the Metropolitans.

(13) The diplomas and certificates granted to graduates of communal schools, after being ratified by the spiritual authorities, shall secure to these graduates equal rights with the graduates of Government schools of the same grade.

(14) The graduates of those schools which are recognised by the Government as of the highest grade shall enjoy the same rights and exemptions with regard to military service as are granted to the graduates of the highest Government schools.

(15) Graduates of the highest schools who apply for situations in Government service shall be obliged to know the Turkish language, according to the nature and the requirements of the post for which they apply.

(16) Every sum of money which is granted from the exchequer for schools erected or to be erected for the teaching of Christian children shall be given through those spiritual authorities to whose denomination the school in question belongs.

(17) The Government is not to raise obstacles to the collection of money to defray the expenses of the communal schools where it can be shown by the spiritual authorities that such collections are necessary.

MILITARY SERVICE.

(1) The number of conscripts required each year to be estimated and distributed in accordance with the number of those who are liable to military service of the first category of all recruiting departments. The number of men apportioned to each department to be fixed by general ballot, without excepting any recruiting department.

(2) The calling out of the *ichtiat* and the reserves not to be limited, as has hitherto been the practice, to some recruiting areas. The wide extent of Ottoman territory, however, and the want of proper means of communication being taken into consideration, the State will be divided into fixed large areas, and the summoning will be effected gradually for all persons of the same age at the same time, no recruiting department in any area being excepted.

(3) All the military laws and regulations, which every citizen should know without exception, particularly those who arrange the manner and the time of the summoning of the *ichtiat* and the reserves, should be translated into all the languages of the Christian races, and be published officially in detail.

(4) In order that Christian recruits may become officers the sooner, and so increase the willingness of the Christian recruits for military service, Christian youths should be admitted once to the Harbié Military School for three years, the students to be examined, as regards the scientific part of their studies, in their own language, facilities being given to them as regards the Turkish language, of which they should possess as good a knowledge as the Christian students admitted to the other State high schools—that is, they should be able to express themselves both in writing and verbally.

(5) The students of the School for Officers of the Reserve, during the last months of their studies, should serve in the active Army as actual officers, and leave the school with the rank of officer.

(6) All the military laws and regulations should be amended so that the religion, the education, and the national customs and manners of all the soldiers generally should receive consideration. Proselytising and conversion among the soldiers during the time of their military service should be forbidden by a special law.

The "Introduction" to the internal regulations of the Army should be amended in such a way as to show that the Ottoman Army belongs as much to the Christians as the Mussulmans.

Where orders are issued relating to Turkish manners and customs, similar orders should also be issued for Christian manners and customs.

Where there is a reference to an *imam*, a similar reference should be made to a Christian priest.

To each division there should be attached a travelling priest for the soldiers of the different creeds.

All offences, insults, and maltreatment inflicted upon Christian soldiers by officers or Turkish soldiers should be forbidden, and the soldiers thus treated should be allowed to complain directly to the commander of their division.

(7) The period of compulsory military service, and especially of the Navy, should be shortened.

(8) In the Recruiting Law the age of those who are exempt, as being the protectors of parents or families, should be fixed at 21 instead of 17.

(9) Where there is only one son in a family, he should be exempt from military service.

(10) Where two sons of a widowed mother are eligible for service, only one to be taken if the third is under age.

(11) In time of peace the recruits should serve within the recruiting areas referred to above, which will contribute to the efficiency of the service, both as regards the order, drills, morality, and health of the men.

The Œcumenical Patriarchate, in submitting the above demands, requests the Government, on the one hand not to doubt the sincerity of its desire for the strength and prosperity of the Constitutional State, and on the other hand, the Government should take into consideration that any further delay will necessarily create excitement and anxiety, which may lead to an *impasse* and a crisis for which the Œcumenical Patriarchate will not be responsible.

THE BALKAN COMMITTEE AND THE YOUNG TURKS.

THE excesses of the Young Turkish party, of which we have repeatedly complained in these columns, are at last beginning to be realised in the West, and, if we are to judge by the speeches delivered at the annual meeting of the Balkan Committee lately held in London, by none more clearly than by that body itself. Their condemnation of the chauvinistic policy of the Young Turks was almost unanimous, and the terms in which it was referred to by some of the speakers were quite scathing.

In their annual report the Executive Committee express in plain terms their "apprehensions of the chauvinist spirit which has of late seemed to dominate the Government at Constantinople;" and in moving its adoption Professor Westlake said that if we read even the most moderate accounts of what is going on we might think Abdul Hamid was still reigning. Sir Edwin Pears, who followed, said that with regard to unification, which he preferred to call Turkification, his view was that it was impossible, and undesirable if it were possible. It is this desire for Turkification, he declared, which, more than anything else, has led to the great blunders of which the Turkish Government has been guilty.

Mr. Noel Buxton, who occupied the chair, made the announcement that a fund would be started on behalf of Albanian refugees in Montenegro, and that donations might at present be sent to the Montenegrin Consulate in London. Speaking of the attitude of England upon the question, he said that either she must intervene to control the action of the Turks, or, if that policy were rejected, an actively sympathetic policy should be pursued towards that reforming section, however small it might be, which should be selected as worthy of support.

In the end a resolution was passed by the meeting protesting in the strongest terms against the wholesale devastation being carried on by the Turkish armies, of which, with all its attendant horrors, well-authenticated reports were forthcoming.

In this general resolution, as well as in the trend of the remarks of nearly every speaker who addressed the meeting, can be read the keenest disappointment at the meagre success of the Young Turkish party in the realisation of their ambitious programme of religious and political liberty. The Balkan Committee hailed with acclamation the initiation of the movement which was to regenerate the decaying Turkish Empire, and gave the Young Turks their most cordial sympathy and support. When the true character of the so-called "revolution" became apparent, their friendship began to wane, but still they did not proceed to open condemnation. Now, however, they have advanced even to that stage, and an estimate of the enormities of which the Young Turks have been guilty can be formed from the manner in which they have turned into active opponents even those who were previously their firmest friends. Surely, at last, the lesson will be taken to heart in Constantinople, unless—and there comes to one's mind the proverb about those whom the gods wish to destroy.

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THE NEW GOVERNOR OF CYPRUS.

AN INTERVIEW.

THE newly appointed Governor of Cyprus, Sir Hamilton John Goold-Adams, G.C.M.G., like many English Colonial administrators, first achieved distinction in connection with military affairs. Beginning his career as a subaltern in the British Army, he rose by gradual stages to the rank of major. In 1893 he commanded the field force which operated against the Matabele in South Africa, and he was afterwards appointed Resident Commissioner for the Bechuanaland Protectorate. From this administrative post he was promoted to be Lieutenant-Governor of the Orange River Colony in 1901, finally becoming Governor of the same territory in 1907. This latter post he continued to hold until last year. He is due to leave England for Cyprus at the end of August, and will on arrival take up his quarters in the Governor's residence at Nicosia, where he will immediately enter upon his duties, without any term of residence in the mountains, as has been the custom of his predecessors, during the summer months.

"It is my ardent desire," said Sir Hamilton to a representative of our Cypriote contemporary "Eleutheria" who interviewed him recently upon the subject of his appointment, "to work for the progress and the prosperity of Cyprus, and I am confident that the Press and the people of Cyprus will help me in my task. I have a general idea of the requirements of the island, which I have derived solely from a study of the Colonial reports. I should therefore be much obliged if you would give me your opinion of the principal questions which relate to the island and the needs which call most urgently for attention."

"The foremost question, your Excellency," said his interviewer, "is the general desire of the Cypriote people, who are Greeks both by descent and sympathy, for the recognition of their national aspirations."

"I respect and appreciate the wishes of the Cypriote people," said his Excellency, "because they testify to a vitality of public opinion. But I should like to know what are the other questions to which I can apply myself upon taking up the governorship of the island."

"Well, one of them is the question of the so-called 'tributary tax,' which dates from the time of the British occupation. Notwithstanding the adjustment of the question promised in the letter written by his Excellency the Secretary for the Colonies on October 14, 1910, the Cypriote people still think that they are not morally bound to pay a large sum each year in fulfilment of obligations which they never contracted, and which constitute a grave misinterpretation of the treaty concluded between Great Britain and Turkey."

"Are the Cypriote people then insisting on the complete abolition of the tributary tax?"

"Yes, your Excellency; they have confidence in the justice of their claims and in the righteousness of the British people. It is a great injustice to make a poor country like Cyprus, which has so many local needs and an expensive administration, continue to be chargeable for obligations which it never contracted."

"But I understand you are now effecting economies," said Sir Hamilton. "The Legislative Council has curtailed the salaries of several officials."

"They were obliged to do so. The adjustment of the financial question, to which reference has just been made, threw upon the island the responsibility for every sort of deficit that might conceivably arise, and that is why the Budget has this year been drawn up with such strict attention to economy."

"But are you aware that such decisions of the Legislative Council may lead to a change in the political status of the government of Cyprus? I do not speak now in an official capacity; I only express a personal opinion. There is a tacit understanding between the British Government and those officials whose salaries have been reduced which guarantees the salaries of these officials, and it is with this understanding that the Legislative Council have interfered. Of course, it is quite easy for the amount of the reductions to be given back to these officials by a decree in Council. But do you know what might happen then? His Majesty's Government, taking as an excuse such interference on the part of the Legislative Council, might possibly say: 'This Council, instead of working harmoniously with us, occasions us much difficulty and trouble. Why not abolish it altogether?' And then Cyprus would be deprived entirely of the right to submit her claims to the Colonial Office."

"The threat to abolish the Legislative Council does not frighten the Cypriote people, your Excellency, because as at present composed the Council does not represent the real opinion of the people of the island. There is in its composition no proportion between the Christian and Mussulman elements in the island, and there is not in its acts and decisions that constitutional authority which derives from the sovereignty of the people. Its quorum, according to a strange, anti-Constitutional clause, is formed of one-third of the members, and the Government of the island is not in any way responsible for any acts or decisions which it may take contrary to the wishes of the Council. I can assure your Excellency that the curtailment of the officials' salaries was not prompted by personal considerations; it was purely a matter of principle and of economy."

"Ah! yes, I understand from a study of its budgets, its revenues, and the returns of its imports and exports that the island was in great financial difficulties. For that reason I intend to work earnestly for the improvement of agriculture and the other needs of Cyprus. I am glad I will also have an opportunity of studying the railway system. I hope to do a great deal in this direction, especially as I have had considerable experience in matters relating to railways. I also find that communication by sea is very badly developed, and a more frequent service is necessary for the mercantile and other interests of the island. I will also work for the improvement of stock-raising, and especially of sheep-breeding, which is the necessary complement to the agricultural industry. I have been much struck by the fact that Cyprus is scourged by malaria. It is a great mistake to let a country otherwise healthy suffer from the ravages of that disease. It is a matter of only a trifling expense and trouble, and when that has been undertaken the scourge will soon disappear. In general," concluded his Excellency, "I understand that there are many improvements which can be effected in Cyprus, and the financial development of the country is a matter which will have my special care."

ARCHÆOLOGY.

The Italian School at Athens.

AT the first meeting of the above school the director, Mr. Pernier, spoke on the subject of the excavations made by them in collaboration with the Italian Archæological Mission in Crete.

He gave details of the excavations in the north-east portion of the Acropolis of Phestas, presenting original drawings of the objects found, by which can be ascertained the different periods to which the buildings belong. Afterwards he exhibited pictures of part of a Minoan town, especially of the market, with its stores and other buildings, lately excavated by Mr. Halbherr near the small palace of the Haghia Triada, and then dealt with the topography of the Asclepeion in Levine, and the history of the building there which was disclosed by the last excavations.

In the second part of his speech Mr. Pernier dealt with some very important archaic bas-reliefs discovered by himself in Prinia, Crete, established the position which they occupied in the temple, and compared them with the style of similar archaic bas-reliefs discovered in Crete and elsewhere. He dealt particularly with the restoration work, executed last December, of the most important group of the broken sculptures of Prinia. By this means the statue of a goddess was brought to light, sitting upon a throne, the base of which is decorated upon the sides, and the formation of the lower portion of which indicates the presence of two supporting columns.

Since there are, besides the one restored, fragments of another similar statue, Mr. Pernier, after having made all possible conjectures about their relative positions in the temple, came to the conclusion that these statues with their bases ought to comprise one group forming the upper part of a door between the porch and the temple itself. The long base of the statues was the lintel of this door, on each end of which the statues were placed so as to leave between them a large space like a doorway.

Mr. T. Maiuri, a Fellow of the Institute, interpreted and commented upon the inscription in Archaic Greek which is engraved upon a bronze plate found at the Italian Cyme and has an important bearing upon the history of divination. This inscription, according to the interpretation of Professor Halbherr, includes a clause relating to the time during which the oracle could be consulted. The inscription is probably the most ancient relating to divination.

Mediæval Antiquities in Arta.

Mr. Adamantiou, Ephor of Mediæval Antiquities, lately made an interesting communication to the Parnassos Society regarding the monuments of Arta.

After a few introductory remarks upon the importance of the Frankish period the lecturer proceeded to deal with the principality of the despots of Epirus. During the period of the despots a real historical renaissance flourished in Greece, and with historical life a parallel development and revival of art takes place. Monuments of this renaissance are the remains of Mystra and Gerakion, and in the north of Greece the magnificent churches of Arta, the latter of which are quite unknown.

The churches of Arta are the "Paregoritissa," the "Haghia Theodora," the "Haghios Basileios," and the "Kato Panagia." The chief characteristic of these structures is that they are built in the shape of the Latin basilica, and are adorned with rich decorations in many colours, which the Byzantines so much affected.

The most important of these works from the architectural point of view is the imposing "Paregoritissa," the distinguishing feature of which is the peculiar manner in which its unknown architect has raised the dome upon columns stepped upon one another, a practice till then unknown in architecture. In this manner an impression of magnificence is conveyed by the exterior as well as the interior. It resembles a palace, on the top of which are numerous Byzantine domes.

A special feature of the churches of Arta is the bas-reliefs which adorn their interiors. The most important of these are in the churches of "Paregoritissa" and "Haghia Theodora." The former contains representations of the birth of Christ, and the latter is adorned by a valuable monument, the cenotaph of Saint Theodora, which bears a representation of the pious consort of the despot Michael II.

The special features of the churches of Arta are their variety of Byzantine art and the smallness of Frankish influence, the character of their art remaining essentially Byzantine.

Valuable Donations to Museums.

Mr. Constantine Carapanos, to whom archæology is indebted for his important excavations at Dodone, and his donation to the Archæological Museum of Athens of the unique collection of antiquities found at that very ancient oracle, as well as the rest of his archæological collection, which fills two rooms of the Museum, has made a fresh donation to the National Numismatic Museum of his rich collection of ring gems.

This collection consists of exactly a thousand precious stones, 280 of which are cameos, and 720 intaglios. They belong to ancient, mediæval, and modern times, and many of them are in their settings. In the same collection there are also eight gold ornaments of different design.

In addition to these Mr. Carapanos gives to the Museum 112 gold, silver, and bronze coins and medals belonging to all periods.

Mr. Carapanos worked with great zeal for about forty years to bring this collection together. It is to be regarded as the richest collection in Greece, even the museums containing only a small number.

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THE PICTORIAL ART OF GREECE.

III.—THE GEOMETRIC AND BLACK-FIGURE PERIOD.

THE period covered by this particular development of Greek pictorial art is, roughly, from the time of the Dorian invasion (about 1000 B.C.) to the end of the fifth century B.C. What is known as the Black-Figure period of the Greek vase-painters embraces the latter century. The later "Red-Figure school" originated at Athens about the middle of the same century.

The centuries to which reference has been made (1000-500 B.C.) are the dark period of Greek art. The Mycenaean civilisation, together with the artistic beauty and grace which characterised it, was almost completely eclipsed by the dark cloud from the north. Driven from its native soil by the rude Dorians, Greek art took refuge in Ionia. There it continued to flourish while Greece proper was in the hands of the barbarians, and thence it crept, slowly and fearfully in later centuries, to re-take possession of its own.

It would be a mistake to think, as some writers appear to do, that the introduction of crude geometrical ornamention into Greece began with the Dorian invaders. These elementary designs are not the exclusive property of any particular race, nor confined to any special portion of the earth's surface. They are the possession of nearly all primitive peoples, and are to be found over the whole of Greece among the remains of neolithic and Pre-Mycenaean times. The geometric decoration of the period that preceded the Mycenaean age is practically of the same character as that introduced by the Dorian conquerors. The Dorians therefore did not initiate a new phase of Greek art; what they did was simply to put back the clock a matter of two thousand years.

In Ionia, as was to be expected, the eclipse of art was only partial. The Achaeans who sought refuge there prosecuted their art in their new home, and numerous passages are to be found in ancient writers which testify to the activity of early Ionian artists. Here, too, were produced more dignified examples of the art of painting than the vases upon which one has to depend in most other parts of the Greek world. Ionia was in these early days a great centre of painting and famous for the productions of her artists. In Pliny we read that, as early as 700 B.C., Kandaules, King of Lydia, purchased for its weight in gold a picture by Bularchos, representing a battle of the Magnetes. Saurias of Samos is also mentioned by another writer as a renowned master of that time, and to Samos also belonged Mandrokles, who in the sixth century B.C. painted a famous picture representing Darius watching his army crossing the Bosporus. Scenes from the legend of Troy which were executed about this period by Kalliphon of Samos have also been considered worthy of historical record.

This artistic pre-eminence of Ionia in the Greek world lasted down to about 545 B.C. In that year she was conquered by Harpagos, and just as her supremacy in art had been achieved by the expulsion of the artists from the rest of Greece, so now Athens was similarly to benefit from the misfortunes of Ionia. When Ionia fell, her artists emigrated chiefly into Attica, and this influx of new blood gave an impetus to Athens as an art-centre which speedily rendered her supreme.

In dealing with the productions of the Athenian *ateliers* we are able to trace clearly the various stages by which Greek painting was developed anew from the crude geometrical designs of the Dorians. At first the decoration upon the Athenian vases consists of straight lines, dots, triangles, squares, and zigzags. Later, the decoration becomes rather more elaborate, but is still obviously inspired by the architectural spirit. Then figures of birds, animals, and men appear interspersed among the geometrical ornamentation, and this in its turn yields before the introduction of plant forms which is a characteristic of Mycenaean art. Finally there appear representations of historical episodes and scenes from mythology, and the full development of the art, so far as Black-Figure vase-paintings is concerned, is complete.

Intermediately between the school of Athens, whose artists had been turned back to the alphabet of art and made to ascend the ladder again from the lowest rung, and the school of Ionia, where the continuity of art had been better preserved, there comes the school of Corinth. In Corinth the Ionian (or Mycenaean) influence was both more powerful and exerted more directly, and at an earlier period, than at Athens. One is not surprised, therefore, to find records of a very important school of painting which flourished at Corinth as early as the sixth century B.C. Among the more famous names of these Corinthian artists are those of Cimon and Cleanthes. To Cleanthes Pliny attributes the invention of "linear painting," by which is probably meant the representation of objects by outline instead of in silhouette. Outline drawing was, however, a common practice with the artists of the Mycenaean period.

Notwithstanding these records of artistic activity in Corinth at an earlier period than the fifth century B.C., it is only by vase-paintings that we can judge of the capabilities of the Corinthian artists. Undoubtedly some of the productions of these men are of the very highest order, but in general they fall below the artistic level of Ionian paintings, or the high standard of excellence to which the Athenian vase-painters subsequently attained. The painters of Corinth were unfortunately not content to fill their space with representations of all kinds of animals, birds, and people, together with many fanciful monstrosities, but they popped rosettes and other ground-ornaments into all the odd corners, to the manifest detriment of their figures and the ruin of the artistic effect. Ultimately, when the prosperity of Athens soared to great eminence under the fostering care of Peisistratos in the sixth century, Corinth declined to a subordinate position, and her artistic supremacy passed to her great rival. These three schools, Ionia, Athens, and Corinth, are those which best illustrate the history of the development of Greek painting in the period under review.

Although we have to regret that vase-paintings are the chief means of enabling us to judge the artistic productions of Greece from the tenth to the fifth centuries B.C., it must not be imagined that the best examples of these fall to a lower level than any other manifestation of the artist's genius. On the contrary some of them are among the most perfect specimens of the art of delineating figure-subjects that have ever been produced. Examples of the truth of this are to be found in museums all over the world. One of the most famous of these examples is the François vase at present in Florence, the drawing upon which is admitted to be a marvel of skill and artistic feeling. There is also a magnificent collection in the British Museum in London, arranged in the order of their artistic development, in which one can trace the crude designs of the earliest Dorian decoration slowly yielding to the more artistic conceptions of Mycenaean times, and these again giving place to the work of the men who were the forerunners of Polygnotus, Zeuxis, and Apelles. H.

MODERN GREEK LITERATURE.

THE MARRIAGE OF THE COMELY MAID.

The specimen of Modern Greek Literature which we present to our readers upon the present occasion is a typical example of the popular tongue. It depicts also in a striking way some of the customs observed in certain parts of Greece upon ceremonial occasions, which are seldom or never encountered except by natives or those long resident in the country. The author, Mr. J. Vlachoyannis, is among the best known of Modern Greek short-story writers. He has also achieved considerable distinction as an historical scholar, and is a noted authority upon everything that relates to the Greek War of Independence. He is, besides, the author of a monumental work dealing with the Island of Chios.

Πέρα σ' ἕνα ὄμορφο χωριό, ποῦ βρίσκεται σ' τὸν ξακουσμένον τόπο, τὴ Λιγερή παντρεύουν κόρη!

Παντρεύουν τὴν κόρη τὴν ἀταίριαστη σ' τὴν προκοπὴ καὶ σ' τὰ κάλλη, τ' ἀκριβό καμάρι τοῦ χωριοῦ, καὶ τῆς δίνουν ἕνα παληκάρι περήφανο, ἄφταστο σ' τὴ δύναμη καὶ σ' τὴν καρδιά, πρῶτο σ' τὸν πόλεμο, σ' τὸ χορὸ καὶ σ' τὸ λιθάρι.

Γι' αὐτὸ εἶν' ἡ μακρινὴ ἀχολογὴ ποῦ φέρνει ὁ ἄνεμος, γι' αὐτὸ εἶν' οἱ πυκνοὶ βρόντοι ἀπὸ ντουφέκια, τούμπανα, τραγούδια, ποῦ ἀντιβουΐζουν;

Μὴν εἶν' ἀπὸ πόλεμο, ποῦ κάνει μὲ τοὺς Τούρκους ἡ κλεφτουριά, μὴν εἶν' ἀπὸ πολυσύναχτο πανηγύρι;

Ὄχι, δὲν εἶν' ἀπὸ πόλεμο, ποῦ κάνει μὲ τοὺς Τούρκους ἡ κλεφτουριά, μήτε εἶν' ἀπὸ πολυσύναχτο πανηγύρι.

Εἶν' ἀπὸ γάμο περίχαρον, ἀρχοντικόν, ἀπὸ ξεφάντωμα καὶ τρανή γιορτή, ποῦ ἔχει ὅλο τὸ χωριὸ πέρα πέρα, ποῦ ἔχουν καὶ τ' ἄλλα τὰ χωριὰ τριγύρω, εἶναι γιὰ τὴν καλὴν ὥρα καὶ τὴν εὐκή, ποῦ σμίγει ἕνα ζηλεμένο ταῖρι.

Ποῦ παίρνει ἡ ἀνέγγιχτη λεβεντιὰ τῆς παρθενιᾶς τὴν ἀθέριν χάρη, ποῦ παίρνει ἡ ἀλύγιστη καρδιὰ τὴν καρδιὰ τὴ δειλιασμένη, ποῦ παίρνει ἡ φλόγα ἡ ἄσβυστη, ποῦ δὲν καρτερεῖ, τὴ φλόγα τὴν ταπεινή, ποῦ γλυκοφέγγει.

Ἔχουν χαρές, χοροὺς, τραγούδια σ' τὸ σπίτι τοῦ καλοῦ γαμπροῦ, ποῦ συντάζονται νὰ δεχτοῦν νύφη. Ἔχουν χαρές, χοροῦς, τραγούδια καὶ σ' τὸ σπίτι τῆς χαϊδεμένης νύφης, ποῦ πολεμοῦν ἀρχοντικὰ κι' ἄξια νὰ τὴν κινήσουν. Ὅμως αὐτοῦ ἔχουν καὶ λῦπες καὶ δάκρυα μὲ τὴς χαρὲς ἀντάμα.

Λυπῶνται πῶς τοὺς φεύγει καὶ πάει ἀλλοῦ νὰ κάνη φωλιὰ τ' ὄμορφο χελιδόνι, ποῦ ἦταν σ' ὅλους ἡ ἐλπίδα κ' ἡ χαρά, τὸ γέλοιο καὶ τὸ τραγοῦδι.

Λυπῶνται κοντὰ σ' τὴ γλυκειὰ χαρά, ποῦ ἔχουν τὰ γονικά της, καὶ λὲν μ' ἦχο γελαστὸν τὸ θλιβερὸ τοῦ χωρισμοῦ τραγοῦδι.

Λυπῶνται κοντὰ σ' τὴν τρελὴ χαρὰ, ποῦ ἔχουν τ' ἀγαπημένα της ἀδέρφια, καὶ λὲν μ' ἦχον ἀγαλλιαστὸν τὸ πικρὸ τραγοῦδι ποῦ λέει γιὰ τῶν ἀδερφῶν τὸν πόνο.

Λυπῶνται κοντὰ 'σ τὴν ἄδολη χαρά, ποῦ ἔχουν οἱ καλές της φιλένάδες, καὶ λὲν μ' ἦχο χαρούμενον τὸ λυπητερὸ τραγοῦδι τῆς φιλιᾶς, τῆς πίστης.

Λυπᾶται κ' ἡ ὄμορφη νύφη, κοντὰ σ' τὴ μυστική, τὴν ἀμολόγητη χαρά, ποῦ κάνει νὰ τρέμη γλυκὰ τὴν καρδιά της, καὶ λέει μ' ἦχο σὰν παράπονο, σὰ μοιρολόγι, τὸ τραγοῦδι τῆς ξενιτεμένης.

Ἀφίνει γειὰ σ' τὴ μάννα της, σ' τὸν ἀφέντη, σ' τ' ἀδέρφια της, σ' τὴς φιλενάδες. Ἀφίνει γειὰ σ' τὸ σπίτι, σ' τὴν αὐλή, σ' τὸν ἀργαλειό, σ' τὴ βρύση.

Καὶ σὰν τὰ χαιρετήσῃ ὅλα μὲ πόνο, καὶ τὰ ἰδῇ μὲ δάκρυα γιὰ στερνὴ φορά, καὶ τὰ τραγουδήσῃ μὲ κλᾶμα, τότε πάει ν' ἀφήσῃ γειὰ καὶ σ' τοὺς πεθαμένους.

Κινάει τ' ὀψίκι πλήθιο μ' ὄργανα καὶ μὲ τραγούδια, κ' ἐκεῖ ἄμ'

FAR away in a beautiful village of a famous land the comely maid is being married.

The girl, who has not a peer in accomplishments, in beauty, and who is the very pride of the village, is being married. She is being married to a proud *pallikari*, who cannot be matched in strength and in courage, and who is foremost in battle, in the dance, and in hurling the stone.

Is it on that account that there comes upon the wind the sound of distant uproar, is it for that there resound the numerous rifle-shots, the drums, and the songs? May it not be from war which the Klephts make upon the Turks? May it not be from a crowded fair?

No, it is not from war which the Klephts make upon the Turks, neither from a crowded fair. It is from a joyous and notable marriage, from feasting and a great *fête*, which is being enjoyed by the whole village and the surrounding villages as well. It is for the good-speed and the blessing which unites an enviable pair.

Because unstained gallantry is joining itself to the grace of ethereal virginity. Because to the indomitable heart the timid is being joined. Because the inextinguishable flame joins and waits not for the humble flame which scarcely glows sweetly.

They have rejoicings, dances, and songs in the house of the good bridegroom, where they are gathered to receive the bride. They have rejoicings, dances, and songs also in the house of the petted bride, where they vie with one another in sending her off nobly and worthily. But here sorrow and tears are mixed with rejoicing.

They are sorry because the beautiful swallow, who was to all of them hope and joy, the smile and the song, is leaving them, and going elsewhere to build her nest.

Her parents feel, along with sweet joy, sorrow, and they sing with smiling mien the sad song of separation.

Her dear brothers, with wild joy, feel sorry, and sing to a slow tune the bitter song which describes the sorrow of her brothers.

Her good maiden friends, with innocent joy, feel sorry, and sing to a gay tune the sad song of faith and friendship.

With the secret and inexpressible joy which causes her heart to beat sweetly the beautiful bride is also sorry, and sings, with an air like a plaint and a lament, the song of the exile.

She bids farewell to her mother, father, brothers, and maiden friends. She bids farewell to her home, the courtyard, the loom, and the fountain.

And after bidding farewell to everything with pain, and seeing everything for the last time, and singing with weeping, she goes to bid farewell to the dead.

All the wedding party start with musical instruments and songs, and when they arrive they set

ἀράξουν ὅλοι, στήνουν τραπέζι καὶ χορὸ γύρω σ' τοὺς τάφους καὶ λὲν μ' ἦχο γιορτινὸν τά θλιβερὰ τραγούδια σ' τοὺς πεθαμένους.

Τοὺς χαιρετοῦν μ' ἀγάπη, τοὺς ρωτοῦν πῶς εἶναι σ' τὸν Κάτου κόσμο, πῶς περνοῦν σ' τοῦ Χάρου τὰ ἰσκιωμένα μέρη.

Τοὺς κάνουν καρδιὰ κ' ἐλπίδα πῶς θ' ἀνταμωθοῦν, τοὺς λὲν νὰ μὴν ἔχουν πόθο σ' τὴ ζωή, πόθο κακὸν καὶ τὴ φτονήσουν.

Τοὺς καλοῦν γιὰ λίγο νὰ χαροῦν κ' ἐκεῖνοι σ' τὴ χαρά, νὰ δώσουν καλὴ εὐκὴ καὶ καλὴ μοῖρα σ' τὴν ὄμορφη νύφη.

Τοὺς βάνουν σ' τὸ πλευρὸ ψητὰ νὰ φᾶν, τοὺς χύνουν σ' τὸ κεφάλι κρασὶ μαῦρο νὰ τοὺς δροσίσουν.

Καὶ σὰν τοὺς πάρουν τὴν εὐκή, βγαλμένη εὐκὴ ἀπὸ τὸν ἄλλον κόσμο, ποῦ τὴ λὲν κι' αὐτὴ μὲ τὸ τραγοῦδι, καὶ τοὺς δώσουν τὸ στερνὸ χαιρέτημα καὶ τοὺς 'ποῦν τὸ στερνὸ μοιρολόγι, τότε γυρίζουν καὶ πᾶν τὴ νύφη σ' τὸ γαμπρό, ποῦ μὲ λαχτάρα τὴ περιμένει.

Πέρα σ' ἕνα ὄμορφο χωριό, ποῦ βρίσκεται σ' τὸν ξακουσμένον τόπο, ἅμα ἔχουν χαρὰ δὲ λησμονοῦν τὴ λύπη, καὶ πάλι δὲ διώχνουν κι' ἀπὸ τὴ λύπη τὴ χαρά!

tables and dance around the graves and sing to the dead their sad songs to a festive air.

They salute with affection. They ask them how they fare in the other world, how they fare in the gloomy land of Charon.

They encourage them and give them hope that they will meet again. They bid them not to envy life, not to have an evil envy and bear malice.

They invite them to rejoice for a short time, to give a blessing and wish good luck to the beautiful bride.

They place by their side roasted lambs, on their heads they sprinkle red wine to refresh them.

And after they receive their blessing, a blessing which comes from the other world, and which is also pronounced in songs, and after they bid them the last farewell and sing them the last lament, then they return and convey the bride to the bridegroom, who awaits her with longing.

Far away in a beautiful village of a famous land, when the people rejoice they do not forget sorrow, neither do they separate from sorrow joy.

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REVIEWS.

THE AGE OF PERICLES.

THE middle of the fifth century B.C. is one of the most notable stages in the history of the world. There have been periods when some particular department of human knowledge attained an astounding degree of development, but none where, as in this, so many phases of mankind's activity rise together to their zenith as if driven by one common impulse. Science, art, literature, were represented by men whose works serve as models to students at the present day. Socrates, Plato, Xenophon, laid the foundations of philosophy in that period. Aeschylus, Euripides, and Sophocles wrote dramas destined to be immortal. Pheidias, Callicrates, and Polygnotus executed with chisel and brush masterpieces that for dignity and artistic feeling have never been surpassed. Herodotus, the father of history, and Thucydides flourished then; so did Meto the astronomer, and Hippocrates, the most celebrated physician of antiquity. Alcibiades, Aristides, Miltiades, Themistocles, and a host of other brilliant names figure in oratory or the art of warfare.

It would be futile, even if there were space (which there is not), to attempt to trace with anything approaching certainty the causes which contributed to the production of this blossoming-time of human knowledge, or to decide which was entitled to the largest share in the glory. One theory which is perhaps as near the mark as any is that lately propounded by an eminent scholar and savant, that before any decided stride forward can be taken by a race, there must be an infusion of fresh blood into its veins. The Dorian Conquest took place some three or four centuries before the Golden Age, and the intervening period coincides with the lapse of time said to be necessary for the new blood to produce its proper effect.

Putting aside the consideration of the more distant causes, a great deal of the influence that helped to mould the fifth century in heroic form was no doubt due to the direct action of one man. He was the most notable figure in that most notable age, Pericles, general, statesman, philosopher, patron of art and of letters, and consummate man of affairs. Although nominally the head of the Athenian republic, he wielded an almost autocratic authority, and the effect which he deliberately set himself to produce, in the exercise of his almost unlimited power, was to make his age, so far at least as Attica was concerned, the most glorious in the history of the world. In carrying out this intention he succeeded perfectly. Some of the greatest works of art which the world has ever produced saw the light during his day. The Parthenon and the Propylaea, the Erechtheum, the Pinacothec, and the Telesterion of Eleusis were only a few of the wonders created in that age. The most famous sculptors and painters were employed to decorate the city with works of art which were the marvel of the time.

The dwelling of Pericles became the centre round which revolved the most brilliant of living intellects, and everywhere genius was sought out and attracted to Athens by the munificence of the encouragement which he bestowed upon it. It was of no avail to attempt to screen the light of genius behind a cloud of modesty. When pleasant methods failed, Pericles had his own recipe for persuading master-minds to give the world the benefit of their talents. A renowned painter once pleaded lack of leisure as an excuse for declining the honour of a great commission offered him by Pericles. The latter despatched a body of soldiers, who, taking the painter into custody, clapped him into a room together with the necessary materials, and kept him prisoner till the work was completed.

In the book which lies before us* it has been the aim of the author to trace how much of this progress was due to the inspiration of Aspasia, the gifted native of Miletus, whom Pericles took as his consort after parting from his wife by mutual consent. M. Philaretos no doubt foresaw that, amid the tangle of contradictions with which the sources are obscured, his task would be no easy one, and in his preface he apologises for the incompleteness of the work owing to the scanty leisure he was able to devote to it amid the cares of his professional duties. And there is no doubt that the difficulties by which he was confronted might well have discouraged a less busy man. By one section of the authorities Aspasia is extolled as the author and inspirer of all the greatness of the time in which she lived; others perceive in her only the maleficent genius which was dragging the Athenian state down to destruction, the corrupter of its greatest mind, and the instigator, for base personal ends, of such catastrophes as the Samian and Peloponnesian wars. From such a mass of contradictory evidence it was a task of no small magnitude to extract the truth, and M. Philaretos is not to be blamed for casting to the winds a great deal of what is to be found in the authorities and drawing his own conclusions upon the matter.

There is no doubt that Aspasia was a woman of consummate ability as well as unusual attainments. Plenty of evidence exists to show that she excelled both in rhetoric and philosophy. Plato in one passage definitely states that she had formed a number of excellent orators, among them Pericles and Socrates himself. Misogynist as he was, even the snarling Euripides fell under the spell of the Milesian charmer, and writes of her with praise.

It would, however, be quite easy to overrate the influence which was exerted upon the affairs of Athens by Aspasia. Pericles possessed in himself all the attributes which go to make up the sum of human greatness, and his natural abilities had been developed by the best means that the age could supply. He was the descendant of an illustrious line of ancestors, and, before meeting Aspasia, he had achieved a certain degree of distinction. It is therefore as wrong as it is unjust to attribute the whole of his success, as do some writers, to the promptings of his conjugal partner. The truth of the matter seems to be that in Pericles and Aspasia fate brought together two great minds, each of which was the complement of the other, and the world benefited from the conjunction.

One of the most interesting passages of M. Philaretos is that in which he deals with a question that has now become a burning one—the social and political status of women, and we are glad to note that he advocates a greater measure of liberty for women in both these spheres. He traces in an able manner the steps by which in the early days of the republic the Athenian women were gradually degraded to a condition resembling that of the inmates of a Turkish harem, and exposes the evils which this state of things produced, particularly the introduction of the Hetairae, of whom Aspasia was one. In another place he exhibits very effectively the fickleness of the Athenian populace in its alternate condemnation and worship of Pericles. He points out that this variableness is a prominent characteristic of the Greeks of modern times, and advances the curious theory that this peculiarity is a proof of their descent from the Greeks of early days.

* "Périclès-Aspasie." Par Georges N. Philarétos. Athènes, 1911.

Although the hypothesis just referred to is not altogether flattering to his fellow-countrymen, there can be no doubt about the patriotic motives by which M. Philaretos has been inspired in the production of his book. In his preface he says that "It is only by awaking the Greek spirit to life again that true Hellenes will be created, Hellenes of soul and of body;" and in the section dealing with national unity, one of the great ideas of Pericles, he voices the national aspirations in a manner that is truly noble.

"In modern times the interest of the individual dominates that of the community. Each passenger, each seaman, occupied exclusively with his own concerns, forgets that if the vessel sinks he himself will be engulphed. Happily things have reached such a stage amongst us that we are right in expecting ere long a natural reaction towards a better condition of things.

"We hope and trust that every Hellene will banish from his breast the devouring passion of self-interest, and that he will inscribe there, in indelible letters, the programme of Pericles, who placed the welfare of the State before every other consideration. Then the days of glory will return again. Then will take tangible form the beautiful vision which appeared to Pericles first of all—the vision of Greece, one, great, and indivisible."

We are sorry to have to follow such a fine passage with anything savouring of censure, but we really cannot congratulate M. Philaretos upon the shape which the printers have given to the product of his brain. There are many bad blunders in the text, such as "Maccauley" for "Macaulay" on p. 94; while the sins of omission and commission in the matter of punctuation demonstrate that the workmen were handling matter in a language of which they were entirely ignorant and of whose meaning they had no conception. A little revision at the hands of a person skilled in such work would so easily have obviated all such drawbacks to the usefulness of a book which is a really valuable contribution to the literature upon the subject.

The text is accompanied by 27 illustrations, some of which are very interesting, and the book is published at the price of three francs. H.

"THE CHRONICLE OF CHIOS."

WE have just received the first number of a promising publication which has been established for the purpose of dealing with matters concerning the island of Chios. It is issued under the editorship of Mr. Constantine Amantos, and is to be published annually. The matter contained within its covers is of an attractive and useful nature, and should do a great deal to awaken and sustain the interest of scholars and men of science in the historical, scientific, and literary matters which pertain to the island. If similar publications were established to deal specially with definite portions of the rest of the Greek world, it would be a distinct gain, not only to the locality specially dealt with, but to the nation and the language as well.

Among the many interesting articles there is one upon the ecclesiastical position of Chios from the earliest Christian times down to the 16th century, by Mr. Alexandrides. Another is by Prof. A. M. Andriades, and deals with the life of Cornelia D. Rhoïdes, of the family of Rodocanachi. Mr. D. P. Petrocochino writes upon "A Chiote Diplomat in the 16th Century"; and "The Chrysoboulla of the New Monastery" is from the pen of Mr. C. Sgouros. Mr. C. A. Romanios, ephor of antiquities, gives the history and describes the famous head of the "Maid of Chios," which was found in the island in 1853, and is now in the Museum of Boston, in America. This paper is accompanied by a beautiful illustration. A very interesting and readable article is contributed by Mr. M. A. Syriotis, who writes upon the great Greek firm of Ralli Brothers and imparts much valuable information in a clear and concise style.

The editor himself has several contributions to his name, among them a collection of notes throwing light upon episodes in the history of Chios, which were taken from the codices of villages and monasteries.

Altogether, the character of the publication is very creditable to the enterprise of those who originated it, and we hope that wealthy and patriotic natives of Chios, of whom to our knowledge there are many in different parts of the world, will give to the organ the support that is indispensable to the effective prosecution of the object for which it has been established.

PRESS REVIEW.

COMPLICATING THE SITUATION IN CRETE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE "MORNING POST."

SIR,—As a student of the many difficult problems which make up the Near Eastern question, and as a traveller who is not only interested in the future of the Cretan people but also one who is desirous of seeing the maintenance of British prestige in the Near East, I have read with interest and satisfaction the excellent article which appeared in your issue of May 15 and also the various telegrams which have recently been published from the Athens correspondent of the "Morning Post." Whilst I entirely agree with the views expressed in that article, will you allow me the hospitality of your columns to explain one small, though from a Cretan point of view important, error which it contains, and also space to draw attention to the situation which may be created in Crete should the protecting Powers allow the Cadis reported to have been nominated by the Turkish Government to land in the island?

The writer of the article in question, after clearly summing up the arrangements originally made by the Powers for the government of Crete, goes on to state: "After an interval the Greek Government was allowed to appoint a Governor of the Island, first for some years a Greek Prince and afterwards a Greek statesman." As a matter of fact Prince George was appointed High Commissioner of Crete by the protecting Powers and not by King George. It was not until September, 1906, that the King of the Hellenes was formally given the right not only to appoint Prince George's successor but also to nominate a candidate to fill the post of High Commissioner whenever that appointment became vacant. This "concession," as it was called in the diplomatic note delivered to the Island Government by the representatives of the protecting Powers, was, and is, rightly considered by the Cretans to be a still further sign that the Powers were at that time allowing Crete to be united with Greece by instalments.

Should the protecting Powers allow the Cadis reported to have been nominated by the Turkish Government to land in Crete it will not only be yet another act of bad faith on their part, but it will make the "status quo" in the island still more absurd than it is at present. As far as the first point is concerned, according to the Cretan Constitution of 1899 the Prince—then High Commissioner—was given the right of appointing and dismissing both the Muftis and the Cadis, the only restriction being that these men were to be chosen from "among persons having

the authority of the Sheik-ul-Islam to perform their duties." From this it would seem that only the High Commissioner of the Island, or in his absence the person or persons upon whom his duties devolve, can have the right to make these appointments. As M. Zaïmis left Crete in October, 1908, the right of appointment, if any appointments are to be made at all, can only rest in the hands of the Provisional Government of Crete or of King George, who nominated M. Zaïmis, and who has the right to nominate his successor.

Again, by the same Constitution certain decisions of the Cadis can be appealed against in the ordinary Courts if they are not accepted by all the parties interested. But since 1908, when the Cretans once more declared their union with Greece, and when as a consequence certain changes were introduced in the administration of the island, justice has been regularly dispensed in the name of the King of the Hellenes and according to the Greek legal code. It would seem, therefore, that in future certain decisions of Cadis nominated from Constantinople might be subject to the revision of Courts which, as I have said above, are practically Greek. Will the Great Powers sanction such an impasse or will they find some solution for this difficulty which will still further increase the ambiguity of the situation and render the Cretan question yet more complicated than it is at present?—Yours, etc.,

H. CHARLES WOODS.

Royal Societies Club, May 26.

TURKISH POLICY IN ALBANIA.

DEVELOPMENTS in Morocco are not likely to threaten the peace, though they may perhaps for a time disturb the tranquillity, of Europe. More immediate and more real is the danger of the Balkan situation. Only a week ago we commented on the serious news from Albania. While acknowledging—as we have acknowledged all along—the right of the Turks to vindicate their authority over the tribesmen, we expressed, not for the first time, our regret that they should have adopted a policy calculated to drive Albania into revolt. The borders of Montenegro and of Greece were not, we pointed out, the only places where trouble might arise if the troops of the Sultan should continue to be locked up in the mountains of Albania. Since we wrote our warning has been repeated in Vienna, and repeated with an emphasis that has startled the diplomatic world. The language of the Austrian Press is not the only ominous reminder of 1908. King Ferdinand was received by the Emperor Francis Joseph a few days before the article in the "Fremdenblatt" was published; and it was the banquet given him by the Emperor in Budapest that ushered in the crisis of three years ago.

Even if we ignore these subsidiary portents, it is disquieting enough that the Government of the Dual Monarchy should have felt called upon to lecture the Porte in this outspoken way through the columns of its official organ in the Press. Count Aehrenthal is reported to have spoken in the same sense to the Turkish Ambassador in Vienna; and it is to be hoped that his representations may produce some effect upon the Ottoman Government. The recent Russian Note, the unpleasant frontier incidents on both the Bulgarian and Greek frontiers—to say nothing of the tension with Montenegro arising out of the Albanian revolt—the revival of the Cretan question, and the prevailing disaffection in Macedonia should incline the Porte to listen to the advice, however unpalatable, of those who urge upon it a policy of conciliation towards the race that has so often and so bravely fought in its quarrels. The Turkish side of the question we published on Saturday in a communication from the Ottoman Embassy. That communication gives an account of the origin of the rising which we will not now discuss further than to say that it does not alter our opinion of the unwisdom of the policy pursued by the Young Turks. It describes the news published in the Press of the rigorous nature of the repression as exaggerated and biassed and as derived from indirect and partisan sources. That is possibly true enough of some of the reports we have seen; but it is largely the fault of the Turkish authorities themselves. We do not wish to attach exaggerated importance to these stories, and we fully realise the difficulties of the Turkish Government. None the less, we think it would be wise and prudent on their part to celebrate by some measure of conciliation the visit that the Sultan is about to pay to the confines of Albania. It would be a fitting commemoration of that great victory should the occasion be marked by some announcement that would rally round the descendant of Murad those who now stand in arms against him. We do not wish to be alarmists, but we confess that, should this opportunity for conciliation not be seized, we shall regard the situation with great misgiving.—"The Times," June 12th.

THE SITUATION IN THE NEAR EAST.

IN the South-East of Europe the condition of the Kingdom of Greece has improved. M. Venizelos has fulfilled the hopes that were entertained of his character and judgment, and the disturbances that caused so much anxiety appear not only to have ceased in Greece but to have subsided even in Crete. The Cretans were sure to object to the appointment of Turkish Cadis, and it speaks well for their increasing self-control that their protests have not taken the shape of an explosion of violence. The protecting Powers will surely be well advised to exert their influence at Constantinople either in favour of the suspension of this measure or towards its reduction to a form which can be made intelligible to the Cretans.

* * * *

The leaders of what is called the Young Turkish movement, or the present rulers of Turkey, set out with some ideas of an Empire in which the several races were to be associated for the common good; they repudiated the idea of a ruling caste superimposed upon a majority without rights and without the protection of law. But in order to secure the support and co-operation of their Turkish compatriots they were obliged to clothe their programme of a national revival in a Turkish dress, in which it appeared as Turkey for the Turks. Thus they soon found themselves estranging every element of the population that was not Turkish. The Albanians, in their reply to the proffered amnesty or proposal for unconditional surrender, recited their enthusiastic welcome of the Constitution and their disappointment on finding that Abdul Hamid had chastised them with rods but the Constitutional Turks with scorpions; that their representatives in the Parliament at Constantinople had been terrorised and silenced and their own reasonable demands rejected. If the new Turkey is to fulfil the hopes with which its advent inspired Western Europe its rulers will listen speedily to the advice given them in the friendliest spirit by the Government of Austria-Hungary, and instead of talking of the dignity of their Government will agree to grant the reasonable demands of the Albanians. They can, of course, if they are so minded, carry on the campaign to the extermination or expatriation of the tribes. But in that case they may increase their own embarrassments, for it is by no means certain that Montenegro can remain a passive spectator of the campaign or that Austria-Hungary will always remain content with friendly advice. A word from the Hofburg could transform the whole aspect of the Balkan countries.

—THE MORNING POST.

NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE.

ASSETS, 31st October, 1910.	30th Oct., 1910. * Drachmae.		31st Sept., 1910. * Drachmae	
Funds { Cash	3,503,478	07	3,524,865	72
Funds { Ionian Bank, Bonds	506,345	—	356,680	—
Funds { Ditto, of one or two Drachmae	1,159,614	—	1,057,188	—
In Foreign Banks { Gold	40,508,361	52	43,580,591	74
In Foreign Banks { Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan	160,357	83	173,713	83
*Loan to the State	61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto. in land 2 Drachmae issues	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds { in gold Dr. 26,079,118.75 / in paper Dr. 34,617,201.25 }	60,554,292	50	60,630,910	50
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan	1,440,000	—	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds	5,150,903	82	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected	21,273,213	37	21,394,815	23
Maturing Bills of Exchange	3,541,762	21	3,519,040	81
Advances on Securities	23,034,855	27	23,508,951	15
Advances on Merchandise	6,227,775	11	4,553,302	92
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage	70,378,948	34	72,421,044	26
Loans to Communities, Harbours, and other legal bodies	46,181,948	83	46,264,436	98
*Agricultural Drafts	11,912,143	75	13,006,033	75
Maturing Agricultural Drafts	5,616,441	90	5,566,492	35
Shares in Local Companies	7,471,158	20	7,471,158	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete	1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds { Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece } Bank Bonds at 2½%	728,182	35	733 874	76
Bank and Premises	2,246,440	94	9,267,702	77
*Doubtful Debts	3,526,210	11	3,499,776	75
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)	1,394,002	11	1,389,140	41
Sundry Accounts	2,574,379	37	2,373,619	64
Sundry Foreign Accounts	5,881,597	24	2,197,096	88
Redemption of State Participation in the Profits of the Bank	1,075,200	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank	560,100	—	560,000	—
Commission for Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in Bank Bonds	50,000		50,000	—
Sundries	822,146	25	684,997	96
Dr.	407,307,84	49	408,230,112	84

LIABILITIES.				
Capital—in 20,000 Shares	20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund	13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds— 1. For the account of the Government Dr. 61,778,575.42 / 2. For the account of the Bank Dr. 49,820,329.73	124 291,017	22	125,305,490	34
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae	9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest	9,547,315	36	11,964,352	16
Deposits without Interest	19 691,782	95	21,069,671	56
Demand Notes	1,608,729	25	1,491,208	41
Unclaimed Dividends	228,430	—	284,035	—
International Financial Control { A/c of payment of Revenues affected } Gold Dr. 763,638.30 / Notes Dr. 4,282,520.64	4,477,717	77	1,874,092	16
Service of the State Loans—Gold	540,396	80	705,659	05
Ditto, in Bank Notes	306,431	22	372,560	37
State Deposits—Gold	4,808	39	4,808	39
Ditto, Bank Notes	15,062	65	15,062	65
State Deposits { For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway } ... Gold / ... Notes	160,357	83	173,713	83
Deposits at Interest	1,527	21	59,996	21
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3%	119,098,362	26	118,799,336	18
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes at 2½%	40,574,160	—	40,571,160	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3%	20,367,900	—	20,367,900	—
Ditto, Bank Notes at 2½%	1,495,698	—	1,727,474	—
Savings Bank	267,345	—	280,142	50
Bills to be paid	13,418,013	18	13,275,501	83
Sundries	7,263,061	40	6,624,948	20
Dr.	407,307,846	49	408,230,112	84

* At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachma is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant,
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

Athens, 10th Nov., 1910.

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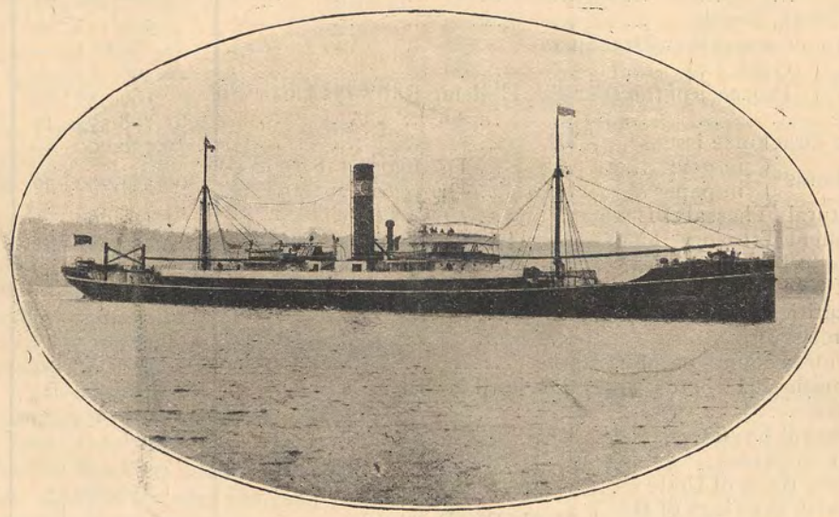

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TURKO-ITALIAN IMBROGLIO.

The condition of affairs in the Near East, which was already in a state bordering upon chaos, has been rendered even more confused and critical, if that were possible, by the sudden and dramatic irruption of Italy into the field of action. With scarcely any warning, war was declared by her upon Turkey, and a large Italian army took possession of the town and part of the oasis of Tripoli, after a preliminary bombardment by the Italian fleet. Here for the present the army remains, encountering a dogged resistance from the Turkish and Arab irregulars, who infest the neighbourhood. To the demands of Italy for the formal cession of the province Turkey has hitherto turned a deaf ear; and it remains to be seen what further steps Italy is prepared to take to enforce compliance with her demands.

The effect of this new embroglio upon the prestige of the Young Turkish government cannot be otherwise than disastrous. If the Italian occupation is made effective, the Young Turks will suffer the humiliation of being deprived of a very large province, and one that is peculiarly Mohammedan. In any case a further strain will be imposed upon the finances of the Empire, which are already stretched to breaking-point, and will have to be relieved either by fresh loans or increased taxation. Whichever of these alternatives is chosen, the way will be found bristling with difficulties and dangers. It was no easy task for Turkey to raise loans even before this war, and the difficulty will be increased tenfold now. On the other hand, any attempt to impose fresh taxation upon the people of Turkey will probably provoke another insurrectionary movement which may not be easy to extinguish.

In order to relieve themselves from an intolerable situation, the Young Turkish statesmen are appealing for the protection and support of the rest of the European Powers. Up to the present these appeals have not met with a very generous response, to put it mildly. To judge from the aloofness of the attitude adopted by the Powers, their feeling seems to be that, having made her bed, Turkey must now be prepared to lie upon it. Their remonstrances to Turkey against the unjust treatment of her own subjects have been disregarded too often for them to display much emotion over the wrongs of Turkey now.

The causes which prompted Italy's seizure of Tripoli were of a two-fold nature. First there was the international situation. For some time the Great Powers of Europe have been enriching themselves at the expense of their less powerful or less progressive neighbours. England helped herself to Egypt, then France annexed Morocco, Austria took Bosnia and Herzegovina, and Germany received compensation in Africa. Italy was the only European Power of any considerable magnitude which did not profit in this international game of grab. In the circumstances it was not unnatural that she should look about for some piece of territory which she might easily annex as a set-off to the gains of her neighbours.

In her selection of Tripoli, Italy was doubtless influenced to some extent by her proximity to that province. The deciding factor was however the number of Italian subjects resident in Tripoli and the large economic interests which they held there. For a long time the infringement by the Turks of the rights of these Italian subjects had formed the matter of serious complaint by the Italian government to the Porte, and the indifference with which these remonstrances were received was not calculated to foster good-will between the two governments. When therefore the time arrived that Italy was in a position to deliver a sudden master-stroke, she felt very little compunction in proceeding effectively to do so.

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Although the cause of Italy's irritation with Turkey was the unjust treatment of Italian subjects in Tripoli, it must not be imagined that these Italians occupied a position less favourable than the subjects of other nations resident in the Turkish Empire. The treatment which was meted out to them by the officials of the Turkish government differed in no way from that extended to other nationalities, — the Greeks for instance. In these pages we have had to protest repeatedly against the injustice and personal ill-usage which those of the Greek race have had to suffer at the hands of the Turks, and we have pointed out to the Turkish government the difficulties into which this cynical disregard of the elementary rights of citizenship would lead them. Other nationalities, we knew, possessed less patience and stronger armaments than those of Greece, and would not be brow-beaten as she had been.

There are two phrases which spring involuntarily to people's lips when they contemplate a situation like the present one. These are "I told you so" and "Serve you right." We confess to having used the first, but we have no desire to give utterance to the second. The interests of a large proportion of the Greek race are too intimately bound up with the prosperity of the Turkish Empire for us to desire any kind of misfortune to befall it. Rather, much rather, would we see the statesmen of Turkey take a lesson from the events which are happening around them, and set about the consolidation of their Empire in a permanent and satisfactory manner. This they can do by granting a full measure of political, religious, and economic liberty and justice to all Turkish subjects of whatever race, creed, or colour.

THE ASSASSINATION OF THE METROPOLITAN OF GREVENA.

A TERRIBLE crime, seldom equalled even in the worst days of Turkish misrule, was perpetrated near Grevena, in the south-west of Macedonia, on the 18th October, the Metropolitan, his deacon, his cavass, and the muleteers who accompanied them being discovered assassinated and shockingly mutilated in a forest. The crime, besides tending to illustrate the signs of the times, has a serious complexion from the fact that it appears to have been committed not only with the connivance of the local Turkish authorities, but even of the Imperial Government itself. This is apparent from the fact that the news of the assassination was for several days concealed by the Government, and, before this was communicated to the public, a violent condemnation of the Metropolitan was fabricated and published.

It is needless to point out the profound impression made by this crime upon the Greek and the Christian populations generally in Turkey, who in the black record of endless persecution suffered at the hands of the Turks during five centuries of oppression, could always point to the circumstance that amid it all the clergy and heads of religious bodies at least were spared.

One reflection which the outrage must give to all thinking people is that when such abominable crimes are possible to-day, the regeneration of Turkey under the new régime, of which we have heard so much of late, cannot be much more than a lamentable farce. In the circumstances, one is tempted to ask, since matters have degenerated so far, whether it would not be better for those chiefly responsible to make a clean sweep of the nest of miscreants before they have had the opportunity of elaborating further outrages against humanity.

THE NATION'S RESOURCES.

THE SCHEME OF SCIENTIFIC DEVELOPMENT

THE newly created Ministry of National Economy, of which Mr. Benachi is the responsible head, has imitated the Ministry of War and Marine, and invited a staff of foreign experts to organise its work and help to set it upon a sound working basis. The supervision of the departments of Forestry and Stock-breeding has been entrusted to organisers of Austrian nationality, whose experience has been gained in Bosnia, where the conditions of climate and soil are almost similar to those of Greece. This fact has endowed these organisers with special qualifications for the work which they are now called upon to perform. To Austrian experts also has been entrusted the direction of the School of Agriculture, one gentleman acting as Director and another as Assistant-Director. The department of Pisciculture will be in charge of an Italian scientist of practical experience, whose business it will be to turn to national advantage the latest discoveries in this rapidly developing branch of human knowledge.

As the work of all these departments has a direct bearing upon the prosperity of Greece as a nation, the policy adopted by the Government of getting the best expert assistance in the work of administering them will commend itself to everyone. Of agriculture and stock-breeding it may be said that they form the backbone of the nation's wealth, and any reasonable expenditure which will secure greater efficiency in that direction is not only justifiable but praiseworthy. The importance of Forestry and Pisciculture as sources of national wealth is only beginning to be realised by modern states, and it is gratifying to find Greece taking a prominent share in the development of these sciences. From the scientific management of her forests especially she may reasonably expect to derive a considerable amount of profit, for some of the German States, Saxony in particular, obtain a clear profit of over £1 per acre per year from the forests which they have established upon waste land, and there is plenty of ground in Greece which can be used for a similar purpose.

Although this development of the nation's resources was one of the objects to which the Government was pledged when it took office, the onerous task of reorganising the administrative departments of State, amid the clash of conflicting interests and the strife of political parties, might very well have absorbed all their time and energies. Indeed, not a few were sceptical as to the possibility of the Government being able to deal at all with such matters—at least for a considerable time to come. It is therefore, in the circumstances, particularly pleasing to see that they have been able to realise this important, if less impressive, part of their programme, from which much good to the nation must inevitably result.

PROGRESS OF THE SERICULTURAL SOCIETY OF GREECE.

SOCIETY LADIES AS ORGANISERS OF INDUSTRY

ALTHOUGH the work of regeneration in Greece is proceeding satisfactorily, it is not alone in departments of State that reforms are being effected. The work of reorganisation is being pressed forward in many branches of industry as well. One of those in which the greatest advance has been made is the art of sericulture, which, thanks to the Central Sericultural Society of Greece, has made great progress during recent years.

The Society was at one time incorporated with the Agricultural Society, by the extensive scope of whose operations its functions were completely overshadowed. About ten years ago it was placed upon an independent footing, and immediately entered upon a career of prosperity and usefulness.

Much if not most of the Society's success is directly due to the efforts of Madame Zlatanou, the President of the organisation. This lady not only assisted in placing the Society upon an independent basis, but by her personal influence managed to induce a large number of well-known people, both in Greece and other countries, to take an interest in the work, King George himself becoming the patron of the Society and its most generous benefactor. Mme. Zlatanou collected subscriptions amounting to a large sum in order to enable the work to be started, and procured gratis from the Government a supply of young mulberry trees to be distributed to the peasants among whom the industry was to be established.

Mme. Zlatanou is well known in English social circles, especially in the neighbourhood of Manchester, where her husband, Mr. Zlatanos, has built up a prosperous business, and is one of the most respected members of the Greek community. At the time of the last Græco-Turkish war, Mme. Zlatanou did much to instruct the public mind upon the momentous nature of the issues at stake; and later, when the last chapter of the unhappy tragedy had closed, she made almost superhuman efforts to raise a fund for the relief of the sufferers. In these endeavours she was completely successful, and numbers of poor Greek families were saved from utter destitution by her labours on their behalf.

By the praiseworthy efforts of Mme. Zlatanou and her committee of 15 ladies, belonging to the best circles of Greek society, the silk-growing industry has received a powerful impetus, to the great benefit of the nation and of many peasants who, residing in districts devoid of opportunities for engaging in industry, have been enabled to take up silk-growing. From the smallness of the capital required, and the lightness of the labour involved, it has proved an industry very suitable to the peasantry, particularly to the women.

The Sericultural Society is in close touch with agricultural societies and official bodies throughout Greece, as well as with provincial governors, schoolmasters, clergymen, and other persons of influence. It distributes free, to everyone who asks for it, a stock of silkworm eggs, a quantity of young mulberry trees to serve as food for the silkworms, and a list of printed instructions explaining how to manage both. Besides this it employs a number of paid inspectors who visit each district and instruct and advise those who are learning the industry.

Already sericulture is taught in many elementary schools in different parts of Greece, and Mme. Zlatanou expects to be able by and by to make it an obligatory subject in all the elementary schools.

By these means, and others which the Society have in view, it is hoped to establish silk-growing as a great national industry in Greece; and in the interests of the nation we trust that the Government will second the praiseworthy efforts of the Sericultural Society wherever that may be possible.

In the ten years during which it has maintained a separate existence the Sericultural Society has made marvellous progress. From a mere handful of members its numbers have risen to over 1500, and the list comprises nearly all the best-known names in the Greek world. It has about forty branches, established in different parts of the Kingdom, each of which is carrying on the work vigorously within its special area. The Society now possesses its own nurseries for propagating the young mulberry trees, which it distributes free in all parts of the country.

Altogether the Society and its work are a striking example of what may be achieved by a few resourceful women working under the direction and inspiration of a master-mind.

ROUMANIA'S PLACE IN THE POLITICS OF THE BULKANS.

BY RÉNÉ PINON.

IN September of last year a Parisian journal put into circulation a piece of news destined to cause a sensation.

"According to reports emanating from an absolutely reliable source, which reached us yesterday from Constantinople, Turkey has concluded a military alliance with Roumania. This alliance assures to the Turks the assistance of the Roumanian army against Bulgaria in case of the latter power attacking Turkey. We are assured in another quarter that this convention has been concluded under the inspiration of the Governments of Berlin and Vienna, and that Baron Marshall, German ambassador at Constantinople, has played a leading part in bringing it into existence. It is secret."

Coming so unexpectedly, and without any events having occurred to prepare public opinion for its reception, the news evoked much surprise throughout Europe, and gave rise to animated discussions in the press. After having been fully discussed and commented upon, the news was finally denied by the Governments concerned. But, true or false, the revelation has had the effect of provoking interesting debates, and has clarified public opinion as to the real situation of the Roumanians, confronted as they are by the problems of the Near East.

In the actual condition of political relations subsisting between the Balkan States, an understanding between Turkey and Roumania—and, if necessary, military co-operation—is quite a natural event. That is what we wish to demonstrate.

Roumania is a Danube State. For a very great distance—from the Iron Gates to Silicia—the river, nowhere spanned by a bridge, separates her from the Balkan countries, Servia and Bulgaria. While serving as a frontier to her, the Danube is her life-giving artery, her great commercial highway. When the possession of Dobrudja was granted to her by the Treaty of Berlin Roumania obtained a footing upon the right bank. Both banks of the lower Danube are Roumanian as far as its junction with the Pruth, afterwards Russo-Roumanian to the sea. The islands in the delta are Roumanian; Roumanian also, to a large extent, is the Island of Serpents. Roumania commands the outlet of that great international highway of navigation and commerce.

In Dobrudja Roumania has an open window looking out upon the Black Sea, and in consequence upon the Mediterranean world. In her port of Constanza, joined to Bucharest by the magnificent bridge of Czernavoda, she is directly interested in the balance of power in the Balkans and in the fate of the Ottoman Empire.

But the geographical position of Roumania also interests her in other problems. She has the form of a crescent which, backing upon the Danube, the Black Sea, and Pruth, embraces within its concavity the mountain ranges of Transylvania. The southern horn of the crescent stretches towards the west, by way of Little Wallachia, as far as the Iron Gates. The other horn extends northward, between Pruth and the mountains, and touches the Austrian Bukowina, which sends to the Reichsrat in Vienna five Roumanian deputies. The Roumanians therefore come in contact with the Little Russians or Ruthenians, the Poles and the Russians. Every transformation which may take place in Central Europe, and every conflict which may happen to arise there, affects Roumania's interests.

Moldavia stretches her fertile fields along extended lines from South to North. She lies like a buffer between the Russian plains and the Austro-Hungarian Carpathians. In the event of war breaking out between Austria and Russia, Roumania could hardly remain indifferent. By her extended frontiers, by her crescent conformation, Roumania has been endowed with many neighbours and with the consequent possibility of plenty of quarrels.

During the crisis of 1877-78 Roumania had a bitter taste of the peril due to her geographical situation. She found herself stretched across the path of the two great Powers who were coming to grips with one another. At that time, her independence was not recognised either by the Turks or by Europe. The armies of the Tsar, marching towards the Danube, entered Moldavia without waiting for the signing of the convention which ought to have authorised them to do so. Gortchakoff made no secret of the fact that, if permission had been refused, the army would have taken it by force.

The months which followed the Treaty of Berlin proved for Roumania and her King a period of incessant alarms. She had to allow the establishment upon her territory of a line of posts for the victualling and the relief of the army which occupied Bulgaria Some of the Russian corps behaved towards their ally as if she had been a conquered country. In the Moldavian villages they left hardly anything that was worth carrying away. It required all the bold yet conciliatory diplomacy of King Charles to avoid, in these circumstances, a catastrophe or a national humiliation.

The lesson of those months was not lost either upon Roumania or her King. The latter applied himself more solicitously than ever to strengthening and training the army; and to-day Russia, even though she were at war with Turkey, would not dare to violate Roumanian territory and take by force a passage which was not granted voluntarily. In any conflict on the Danube or in the Balkans the Powers will have to reckon with Roumania and her army.

The policy of Bulgaria is quite independent of that of Russia, but the memory of the heroic period, the affinities of race, religion and interests, may at a given moment lead to an alliance between these two Powers which might prove dangerous to Roumania. This is an eventuality for which Roumania cannot afford to be unprepared, and in order to guard against it there s only one possible course open to her, that is, to come to an understanding with Austria-Hungary, who, being a rival of Russia in the Balkans, has the same interests as she. Indeed, King Charles and his ministers have for a long time been in negotiation with the Cabinet of Vienna, making provision against a new Russian descent upon the Bosporus. A military convention, concluded in 1891, provides that, in the event of Russian aggression, the Roumanian army and that of Austria shall render each other mutual support.

The Turk, with his army reorganised, presses heavily upon this conflict of forces from which must spring the balance of power in the East. He is separated from Roumania by Bulgaria; consequently he has nothing to fear from the former while he is opposing the ambitions of the latter. There is therefore for him nothing more natural than to conclude a treaty with Roumania in order to check the restlessness of Bulgaria and arrest the descent of Russia upon Constantinople.

Putting aside the hypothesis of an alliance between Russia and Bulgaria, and supposing that Bulgaria alone attacked Turkey, Roumania believes that even in this case her interest would impel her to make common cause with the Sublime Porte. She has taken as a fundamental maxim of her policy the rule that an accession to the strength of one State is a diminution of the strength of its neighbours. Compared with Bulgaria, she is actually, as regards both population and general resources, in the proportion of seven to four. She does not wish this proportion to be modified to her disadvantage. A Bulgarian victory which would revive the Great Bulgaria of San Stefano would place Roumania in a position of inferiority; she would run the risk of finding herself crushed between two great Slav Empires. Therefore, turning to her neighbour Bulgaria, she addresses her in language somewhat as follows:

"We wish to be your friends. We shall always view with pleasure your economic and social progress, the growth of your wealth, of your railways, of your exchanges. But if you wish to make war upon the Turks in order to carry your frontiers to the Ægean Sea, and realise the Great Bulgaria of your dreams, or create an independent Macedonia, which would of necessity be a Bulgarian Macedonia—take care! We will mobilise our troops, and while you descend upon Adrianople we will march upon Sofia; we will threaten the rear of your army; we will delay its progress, or at least we will seize a guarantee which will secure to us the right of being an intervening party in the treaty of peace, and of not standing by with empty hands while you are filling yours."

In politics, however, there is no opposition so resolute that it will not waver if it receives what diplomatists call, with such fine euphemism, its "appeasements." Whatever may be the personal sympathies of the Sovereign, his Government and himself are guided alone by the interests of the Roumanian nation If in a territorial remodelling of the States of the Peninsula Roumania received the satisfaction of her legitimate aspirations and the guarantees which she considers necessary, why should she refuse an understanding with Bulgaria? It is not difficult in such a case to divine what would serve as "appeasements" to Roumania. The port of Constanza, which Roumania has created at great expense, and the railway leading thither, lie open to a bold raid from a Bulgarian adversary. The possession of Silistria would remove this danger and allay Roumania's fears; and if circumstances should one day place the Bulgarians face to face with the necessity of attacking the Turks, the abandonment of Silistria would not be too high a price to pay for the neutrality—perhaps even the active help—of the Roumanian army.

There are times when one must know how to surrender a little in order to gain much. And if the Turks must one day be driven out of Europe, it will be by an understanding between Austria-Hungary and Bulgaria, Roumania having received her "appeasements."—*Revue des Deux Mondes.* (*Abbreviated.*)

THE PROFESSORSHIP OF GREEK AT ATHENS.

APPOINTMENT OF DR. SIMOS MENARDOS.

We have pleasure in announcing the appointment of Dr. S. Menardos, M.A.(*honoris causa*) Oxon., lecturer in Late Greek at the University of Oxford, to the Chair of Greek Literature at the University of Athens. This appointment was made by the Greek Government under the new scheme for the reorganisation of the University, and is a most happy selection in every way. All who know Dr. Menardos feel confident that his thoroughly scientific methods, scholarly attainments, and genuine enthusiasm in the cause of literature will infuse fresh zeal into both students and teachers. A series of Dr. Menardos' Oxford lectures has appeared in our pages in abbreviated form.

There are three chairs of Greek literature at the University of Athens. Dr. Menardos will succeed Professor Mistriotis, who after forty years' service, has retired because of age. The other professors are the well-known editor of the "Moralia" of Plutarch, Professor Bernardakis, and the archæologist Dr. Skias. Professor Mistriotis has published a whole library of classical Greek authors. He naturally has in Greece a host of appreciators, but unfortunately he laid himself open to severe criticism, not only abroad but at home.

Dr. Menardos, who is a younger man, has not published so many works as Professor Mistriotis, but all his treatises have been received with general appreciation, particularly in the West. Professor Lichtenberg pointed out, in his periodical *Memnon*, how much indebted we are to the researches of Dr. Menardos for our knowledge of Cyprian archæology. Professor Puech in presenting the prize of the "Association pour l'encouragement des Etudes grecques," of Paris, said, "Menardos a l'esprit d'histoire. Sa méthode est savante, prudente, purément scientifique."

Soon after this, in 1907, Dr. Menardos was called to Oxford to occupy the newly established Chair of Late Greek. Our readers know how pleasantly Dr. Menardos treats from the professorial Chair problems of the most difficult nature, such as the evolution of the Greek pronunciation, and the change of the language from its ancient form to the modern.

At Athens Dr. Menardos is called to take up still more onerous duties. In succeeding Professor Mistriotis, he will of course teach the history of Greek literature; but here at once comes a difference of conception. For Professor Mistriotis the Greek literature ended with Alexander the Great, or at the latest with Justinian; while we know from the Oxford lectures that for Dr. Menardos the Greek literature begins with Homer, passes through the long Byzantine Period, and comes down to Calvos and Solomos, without ending even at Menardos himself.

How far the new professor will be able to apply his method at Athens remains to be seen. All sincere friends of Greece hope that the time of exclusive attachment to the nation's ancient period has ended. If the Greeks themselves consider the mediæval and modern periods of their national life as unworthy, then the foreign scholars, who care little for the modern Greeks, are quite justified in their attitude.

We hope that the reorganisation of the University of Athens, which is due to the generous bequest of the late Mr. Dombolis, will be the starting-point of new progress in the scientific study of Greek literature in Greece. We also hope that the new Professor will become one of the workers in this movement in his native land.

We are glad to be able to state that Dr. Menardos, in accepting the Chair in the University of Athens, will not relinquish his lectureship at Oxford. By special arrangement, he will teach at Oxford during the first and third terms, and at Athens from December till May. We hope that this dual position of Dr. Menardos will strengthen the bonds of friendship between the Universities of Oxford and Athens.

THE HELLENIC LITERARY SOCIETY OF CONSTANTINOPLE.

We reproduce an appeal addressed to us by the above Society, which we commend to the favourable consideration of all our readers who are in a position to respond. The Society is a very worthy institution, and its work is deserving of all support.

Fifty years have now elapsed since the Hellenic Literary Society was established in Constantinople. During this period the Society has been zealously occupied in cultivating and developing Greek literature and science, and propagating them in the Near East.

This activity of our Society has met with much appreciation from scientific bodies both in Europe and America. On the twenty-fifth anniversary of the foundation of our Society this appreciation was especially emphatic, as the volume issued for the occasion clearly shows.

It will be readily understood how this public appreciation encouraged the Society, which is the oldest Literary Society in the Near East, to continue its beneficent work. It now intends to celebrate its fiftieth anniversary next November, and begs those of its members abroad who are engaged in work connected with Greek literature, and those scientific bodies who exchange either their publications with it or share in its work of studying the masterpieces of Greek antiquity, to take part in the celebration. This they can do by sending a treatise on some subject of interest to scholars for publication in the special volume which is to be issued, or in any other way which they may prefer.

The Hellenic Literary Society will feel itself honoured by receiving a favourable reply to this invitation, and will regard it as a kind expression of your appreciation of the serious and laborious work which the Society has done, and a valuable encouragement in its future career. The Society is assured that it has only to make this matter known to you in order to secure your assistance in making this festival as noteworthy and dignified as possible.

Begging you to accept the assurance of our honour and respect,

We remain, with kindly greeting,

The President Dr. Al. Zoéros Pacha. — *The General Secretary* Odysseus Andreades

THE PICTORIAL ART OF GREECE.

IV.—THE EARLY ATTIC SCHOOL.

THE inquirer into the subject of Greek painting begins to find himself upon firm ground at the commencement of the fifth century B.C. Hitherto much has been dim and conjectural; and although the student was confronted by a great mass of material indicating clearlyt he existence of a high artistic development, both vast in extent and prolonged in duration, that material was comprised of the merest odds and ends of ornament, such as the proletariat of early times would use for the adornment of articles in every-day use.

On the other hand, those rare manifestations of real genius which have come to light have either been so fragmentary in character or isolated in position that a connected narrative cannot as yet be derived from them. The student was therefore compelled to rebuild, conjecturally and with hesitation, the vanished edifice of early art from the débris which the ages had left to him.

With the advent of the fifth century those conditions become entirely changed. What was previously dim and conjectural now becomes clear and well defined; what was before solid and tangible is now vague and elusive. The student, instead of being confronted by abundant traces of great artistic activity of which there is no historical record, now finds himself face to face with a clear and convincing record of high artistic development of which all direct representative traces have been lost. In other words, prior to the fifth century there are plenty of remains but no record; in the fifth century there is a satisfactory record but no adequate remains.

In the fifth century the pages of the historian first come into view, and throw a flood of light upon the state of art in that far-off time. They abound in references to great masters of the art of painting, and describe the enthusiasm which their pictures evoked in that age of great geniuses. By some of these authorities the great masterpieces have been described with such minute care that fairly successful attempts have been made to reconstruct the paintings from the written description.

If there is one point more than another which the historical records make abundantly clear, it is the supreme excellence of the great ethical painters of the fifth and fourth centuries. In the minds of their contemporaries these men occupied a position of greater eminence than even the sculptors, although the works of the latter are now universally acknowledged to touch the high-water mark of artistic excellence. If any paintings by the great masters of that time were now in existence, there is little doubt that an inspection of them would confirm the estimate of the historical writers. At the present time there are paintings which have been preserved from later ages, but which have been manifestly inspired by the great vanished originals. The treatment of the subjects represented in these pieces is often far short of what could be desired, but underlying even the crudest of them there is a certain nobility of conception which appeals at once to the spectator. From these imperfect copies one can form an estimate of the excellence of the productions which were their forerunners. "If it were granted to us to look upon some great series of masterpieces by a Greek artist," says one eminent critic, writing of the later productions of that time, "we should not be struck by any technical shortcomings in his work, but should place it without hesitation by the side of the most finished performances of all times or races."

While dealing with this part of the subject, there is one circumstance of which we may here make mention, and upon which too much emphasis cannot be laid. It is this: no attempt must be made to regard any of the artistic remains of the great period of Greek art which are now in existence as the production of any of the painters to whom the historians refer. They are not; and any estimate based upon that assumption will of necessity prove a false one. All the frescoes, vase-paintings, and mosaics of that age, which have been signed by the artists who produced them, are the work of persons whose names the historians did not deem it worth while to record. Many of them, especially the vase-paintings, are exquisitely beautiful, but they are the work of second-rate, or even perhaps third-rate, men. Every manifestation of the genius of that higher world of artistic thought and feeling expressed in the works of the great masters, and of which the historians write so enthusiastically, has been completely swept away. All that remains is but the far-off echo of a vanished greatness.

Nevertheless, the part played by the imitators of the great masters was one of supreme importance in the development of modern art. Inferior in both conception and treatment as they undoubtedly were, they nevertheless served to transmit the traditions, and to a certain extent the spirit, of the great masters to the artists of the Roman period. Thence they passed to the painters of the Byzantine Empire, by whom they were kept alive long after they had vanished from the rest of the world in the general decay of art that took place during the middle ages.

When the Renaissance took shape in Europe, and art awoke from the slumbers of centuries, it was to the works of these imitators of the great masters that the painters of the "New Birth" turned for inspiration and guidance. Their greatest productions bear the plainest marks of the sincerity of their efforts to return to the severe chastity of Classic methods; and their chief successes were achieved in the same way as those of their great preceptors, by the effective combination of simplicity and dignity in marvellously faithful representations of the human figure.

In tracing the development of the art of painting in Greece during the historical period, it will not be possible to do more than mention one or two of the

leading painters, with a few of their works, and the influence which they exerted upon their art.

The historical record of the great Greek painters may be said to commence with the foundation of a school of painting at Athens about 480 B.C. This school was destined in later years to exercise a powerful influence upon the art of the country. Its heads were the artists Polygnotus, Micon, and Panænus. The latter was a brother of the great sculptor Pheidias. The figure which dominates the group, as indeed it does the beginning of Greek painting in the historical period, is that of Polygnotus. The fame of this artist among his contemporaries was so great that historians and poets celebrated it in their writings, and his countrymen accorded him the highest honours, among them the right of free entertainment in the Hellenic cities.

Polygnotus was born in the island of Thasos, somewhere about the beginning of the fifth century. At an early age he came to Athens, then the centre of Greek artistic life ; and here, in conjunction with Micon and Panænus, he decorated the public buildings with pictures which evoked the admiration of all who beheld them. Four of these pictures in the Stoa Poikile represented great conflicts in the history of Greece : the battles of Marathon and Oinoe ; the contest between Theseus and the Amazons ; and the taking of Troy, the last being entirely the work of Polygnotus himself. The Theseion was decorated with scenes from the life of Theseus by Micon. The Temple of the Dioscuri received two tokens of the genius of these great collaborators — one, the wedding of Castor and Polydeukes with the daughters of Leucippus, by Polygnotus ; the other, the Return of the Argonauts, by Micon. To the Pinacothek, or picture-gallery, an extensive series of pictures was also contributed, many of which were the work of Polygnotus.

So great was the fame of these paintings of Polygnotus and his companions in art that demands were made for their services in many parts of Greece. The artists would probably have preferred to remain in Athens, where the artistic pulse beat quickest, and where they were held in the highest esteem. But the perils of the Persian Wars had stimulated the patriotic feelings of the Greeks, and it was felt that the nation's genius could not be better employed than in the nation's service. So the towns of Platææ and Thespiæ, in Bœotia, received pictures which rendered them for long famous. Delphi, where the Cnidians had a place of assembly, was gratified by being given what were regarded as the greatest masterpieces of the Early Attic school. These were executed by Polygnotus himself. A very minute description of them has come down to us. On the right-hand wall of the Cnidian building there was represented the Departure of the Greeks from the city of Troy, to whose destruction the finishing strokes had just been given. On the left-hand side was a representation of Hades, as described by the epic poets, in which the figures of Orpheus, Charon, Sisyphus, Tantalus, and a host of stranger shapes, were disposed in groups of the most admirable arrangement.

From this short description of these paintings, it will be apparent that the scenes which they portrayed could not have been adequately represented by a series of mere sketches. Moreover, to have evoked the admiration which they certainly called forth, they must have been the expressions of genius of a very high order.

There are several outstanding features which distinguish the works of the painters of this Early Attic school. Among these are a minute knowledge of the anatomy of the human body, and a sincere feeling for beauty in the representation of the human form. The most distinguishing mark of all, however, was the suggestion of nobility and expressiveness which they contrived to impart to the features of their subjects. In this phase of art Polygnotus is agreed to have excelled all his contemporaries, his works being described by no less an authority than Aristotle as pre-eminent for *ethos*, or spiritual character.

Although some of his colleagues were content to aim chiefly at portraiture of the subjects whom they treated, Polygnotus himself was clearly inspired by a love of the ideal and a desire to lift the spectator above prosaic reality by beauty of form, majesty of gesture, and power of spiritual expression. It is this quality which forms the distinctive feature of all the paintings of the time of Polygnotus, and there is little doubt that whatever of it was displayed by his contemporaries and pupils was in a large measure due to his inspiration. From this circumstance, too, the place of Polygnotus in the art of his time may be clearly determined. The works of his contemporaries were esteemed in proportion to the amount of *ethos* which they displayed, and it was this *ethos* which formed the dominating quality in all Polygnotus' work.

Although notable for beauty of form and harmonious grouping, the pictures of the Early Attic school lacked certain features which we are accustomed to associate with what is now considered a really good picture. For one thing, they never make any serious attempt to represent a background as we understand it. Natural objects, such as trees and water and houses, were suggested by figures which were merely symbolic. It was Agatharchus of Samos who was to lead the way to this re-birth of a feature known to the Mycenæan artist.

Agatharchus was a painter of scenery for the stage, and so well did he master the principles of his art that he became an eminent authority upon all that pertained to his particular branch of it. He is said to have written a treatise upon painting, from certain pregnant passages in which it has been inferred that the principles of perspective were not unknown to him. By this seme treatise the philosophers Democritus and Anaxagoras were stimulated to the inquiry which they made into the subject. It is not certain that Agatharchus painted figure-subjects, as did so many of his contemporaries.

To combine the skill of Polygnotus in the delineation of the human figure with the achievements of Agatharchus in the region of scene-painting was the special function of a painter who rose to eminence towards the end of the fifth century B.C. This was Apollodorus the Athenian, a painter of easel pictures.

Of the works of Apollodorus we know very little. With all their improvements in the matter of technique, they do not seem to have been of a character calculated to strike the imagination, and the ancient writers have left a very meagre account of them. The best known seems to have been a representation of Ajax in his ship, struck by lightning.

Apollodorus was known to his contemporaries as *skiagraphos*, or shadow-painter, an epithet which was no doubt bestowed upon him for his skilful management of chiaroscuro. He also made a natural and definite background in true perspective a feature of each of his pictures. Probably he also softened down the hard outlines of his figures, and thus realised to some extent our modern conception of painting with the brush.

The period covered by the Early Attic school lasted roughly from the close of the Persian Wars to the outbreak of the Peloponnesian War. During this period Athens was supreme in art in Greece. But the Peloponnesian War destroyed her supremacy, and with her decline the art of painting branches off into several schools, each having its seat at some centre of Hellenic culture. The chief of these were the Ionian, the Sicyonian, and the Theban-Attic. Of these three schools we shall treat in our next paper. H.

GREEK EXHIBITS AT THE ROME EXHIBITION.

WHEN the Italian Government made up its mind to open an exhibition at Rome, as part of the celebrations of the jubilee of Italian unity, the Government of Greece decided to send an official exhibit. To carry out the necessary arrangements a working committee was formed, in which was included some of the best-known and most capable of living Greeks. The head of this Committee was Mr. Typaldos Bassia, ex-vice-president of the Greek Parliament, to whose power of resource and untiring energy is due much of the success that has attended the Greek exhibit.

Besides expressing sentiments of friendship for a neighbouring nation, the exhibit serves to demonstrate to the world the important place occupied by Modern Greece in connection with the study of art. It used to be said that no art-student could be regarded as having mastered his subject until he had thoroughly studied the art of Greece. It must now be added that the study of Greek art in its progressive development can only be properly carried out in Greece. A far fuller conception of the history of Greek art is to be derived from a study of these Greek exhibits than from all the text-books of art-criticism, and yet these exhibits are only reproductions of a limited number of objects selected from the nation's stores of artistic treasures.

The Archaeological Section.

The difficult task of selecting the archæological subjects which were most suitable for reproduction was assigned to the capable hands of Mr. Cavvadias, Ephor-general of Antiquities, and the high artistic value of the pieces shown demonstrates the unerring skill which guided him in his choice. The exhibits consist of a hundred and fifty casts, which, arranged in chronological order, illustrate the development of Greek plastic art from its remote origins down to the Græco-Roman period. At the close of the Exhibition it is intended to present these casts to the King of Italy; so they will in all probability remain in Rome.

The objects comprised in the collection, which must be regarded as the first general exhibition of ancient Greek art, are displayed in the Baths of Diocletian, upon the Mons Viminalis. Upon the visitor's entrance to this historic site he is at once impressed by a masterly reproduction of the famous "Lion Gate" of Mycenæ, surmounted by the majestic lions which stood guard over the home of "Atrides, king of men." Following this is a very important exhibit, in the shape of reproductions of the female figures from the Parthenon of Pisistratus. Upon no previous occasion has a cast been taken of these figures, and the present exhibit may therefore be regarded as unique. Further on, one encounters the exquisitely modelled figure of the well-known "Mourning Athena," which was illustrated and described, with some recently established details, in a previous number of this journal.

The masterpieces of what is known as the "Great Period" are represented in a worthy manner by a number of excellent casts. One of these which evokes much admiration is the collection of figures from the frieze upon the North side of the Parthenon. The sublime majesty of the Gods portrayed there, the easy grace of the Ephebes with their water-pitchers, and the noble simplicity of the equestrian figures, touch the high-water mark of human skill in figure representation. As much may be said of those exquisite productions, the Caryatides of the Erechtheion, and "Victory fastening her Shoe," pieces which leave upon the visitor an uncomfortable impression of the sublimity of the work of the ancients and the inadequacy of much of that produced in our own day.

The work of the School of Praxiteles is seen in the beautiful collection of bas-reliefs found at Mantinea in 1887. These embrace some of the choicest pieces known to the art-world, and illustrate the purity of the Attic taste and the feeling for beauty which always characterised the Athenian artists. Another set of bas-reliefs which attract special attention are a score of funerary stele, the originals of which are in the National Museum and the cemetery of the Ceramicus. These belong to the best period of Greek art, and are in consequence admirable both in execution and design.

The copies of works of the Alexandrian period do not awaken in the spectator the same sense of harmony as those just mentioned. They evince a conscious straining after effect which is in marked contrast to the easy grace and austere beauty of the works of the Great Period. Nevertheless, they are of a very high order, and only fall into a position of secondary importance by being contrasted with the works of the greatest sculptors who ever lived.

The productions of the Græco-Roman period come next in order, and at the head of these stands a magnificent bust of the Emperor Hadrian. The original of this was found in Athens, on the site of the Olympeion erected at the foot of the Acropolis by this Emperor, who caused his effigy to be placed by the side of the chryselephantine statue of the Olympian Zeus which the temple contained. The presence of this statue in the exhibition seems to strike the key-note of friendship between the Greek and Latin peoples, for at no time were the two races in closer friendship than under the beneficent rule of Hadrian. The Emperor's admiration of Greek culture found expression in numerous benefactions to Greece, and this did much to obliterate the memory of the suffering and spoliation inflicted upon her by the other Emperors of Rome.

Our notice of the archæological section will conclude with a brief reference to the reproductions of the figures of female dancers discovered at the shrine of Dionysus in 1862. These convey an adequate impression of the feeling which animated the art of of the Græco-Roman period, and are in close spiritual relationship to the magnificent frescoes which have been recovered from the ruins of such buried cities as Pompeii.

Mediaeval and Modern.

Although the collection of ancient masterpieces would of itself be sufficient to distinguish any nation entitled to claim it, the Committee was determined to make the Greek contribution as comprehensive as possible. They therefore engaged a staff of artists to reproduce in pictorial form the scenes most renowned in classic literature and the famous monuments of Byzantine art and architecture. To this they also added a collection representative of Modern Greek Art. The latter embraces examples of the work of all the best-known Modern Greek painters and sculptors. In this way the continuity of the nation's art has been clearly demonstrated, and few visitors will leave the exhibition without carrying with them the conviction that in artistic instinct the Modern Greeks are the lineal descendants of the Ancients, and the rightful inheritors of their traditions.

The first exhibit to attract special attention in the Byzantine section is an iconography of the Byzantine Emperors, by Professor Lambros, of Athens University. It would be impossible to detail the tedious and often fruitless searching involved in bringing these interesting mementoes together. Ancient churches, monasteries, and public buildings in both East and West were ransacked for rare mosaics and mural paintings. The world's great libraries were searched for old missals whose illuminated pages bore representations of the Emperors. Statuettes, seals, and ivory carvings from all parts also had their share in the formation of this fine collection.

Sometimes the work of reproducing these relics has been executed directly by hand, sometimes with the aid of the camera. Wherever possible, the colouring of the original has been preserved. So thoroughly has all the work in connection with this exhibit been performed that a result quite unique has been obtained, a mass of material being brought together which must prove of the greatest value to future historians of the Byzantine period.

The enlarged photographs of famous Greek scenes were executed under the supervision of the Photometric Institute of Berlin. Thirty-five localities in all have been portrayed, and these range from Athens to Sparta and Mycenæ, and from the Meteora of Thessaly to the fertile plain of Argolis and the sacred Isle of Delos. To Mistra, the Pompeii of the Middle Ages, whose history and art treasures form the subject of an important work lately reviewed in these columns, a good deal of attention has been devoted; and the old Byzantine church of Daphni has also been accorded a prominent place. One of the views of the latter, which reproduces the nave with its wonderful mosaics, is a tribute to the photographer's skill.

There are two of the historic localities reproduced of which special mention must be made. One of these is Olympia, where the shattered columns of the Temple of Zeus are shown prostrate among the dusky pines, Mount Kronion rearing his head in the far distance. The other is the Valley of Delphi, the views of which embrace the ravine of Castalia, with its sacred Spring of the Muses, Mount Parnassus, and the ruins of the Temple of Apollo.

The exhibits in the section devoted to Modern Greek Art comprise about forty works by the most promising of Modern Greek painters and sculptors. Among the more notable of these are a fine painting by Mr. Iakovidis, depicting "Children Playing," and a life-like "Portrait of a Gentleman in a Frockcoat" by the same artist Mr. Mathiopoulos is represented by a praiseworthy "Portrait of an Old Man," and Mr. Dimitriadis sends a beautifully sculptured marble "Head of a Man." Works by artists like Ghisi, Geraniotis, Kontiades, Litra, and others well-known in Greek art circles, all figure in the collection, and help to render it the most complete of its kind ever seen outside of Greece

If there is any ground upon which the Greek visitor will be tempted to find fault with these productions of his fellow-countrymen, it will perhaps be on account of the moderation of the patriotic spirit which they display. The artists of present-day Greece do not seem to realise the artistic possibilities of their native land; and to the patriotic Greek it is very disappointing to find the romantic scenery of Greece and the picturesque details of the daily life of her people neglected in favour of threadbare themes supplied by countries like Holland and Italy.

It is possible, however, that this apparent neglect is to be accounted for by the fact of many Modern Greek artists attaching themselves to the art-schools of other countries, and being attracted by the subjects in favour with their masters. When these trammels of tutelage have been cast off, we expect to see a recrudescence of Greek themes pervaded by the Greek spirit. For whither could Greek artists turn for inspiration more appropriately than to their own land? It was the art of Athens which supplied the great masters of the Renaissance with ideals when they broke away from the paralysing conventions in which their art was bound and their excellence rose in proportion to the fidelity with which they obeyed the canons of the masters of antiquity. It is also to the same source that modern artists will turn when they have grown tired of mere prettiness, and aspire to take up the task of creating in men and women sentiments of wonder and reverence for the ideals of true beauty.

ARCHÆOLOGY.

THE BYZANTINE SOCIETY OF ATHENS.

At a recent meeting of the above Society, Mr. M. Goudas made a very interesting communication. It was to the effect that upon the walls and columns of the Theseion and the Parthenon there have been discovered representations of ships which correspond to descriptions of Byzantine ships made at various times by mediæval writers. These discoveries will, it is hoped, form a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the Byzantine fleet and the structure of the vessels of which it was composed.

At another meeting of the same Society Mr. N. A. Beïs, the general Secretary, described the researches which he made in the monasteries of Meteora and other parts of Thessaly from 1908 to 1910. He compiled a valuable catalogue of the manuscripts preserved in the monasteries of Bituma, Zavlandion, Dussikion, and St. George Mavromati, and made a careful examination of the monastery of Panagia Lycousada, an ecclesiastical institution of great importance in mediæval times. A complete plan of the interesting church of this monastery was exhibited, and also exact reproductions of the paintings and mosaics as well as the ornate brick-work. Mr. Beïs afterwards dealt with the Christian antiquities of the Phanar, in Constantinople. He specially referred to the importance of some inscriptions found in Pelion relating to the Maliasins, the feudal lords of Thessaly in the 13th century. The lecturer concluded his paper with a description of life in Thessaly during the 14th century, especially during the period of Servian domination, and imparted interesting information as to the method of collecting taxes and dispensing justice and upon details of administration in general.

DISCOVERIES IN CRETE.

From last May to July the Italian Archæological Mission in Crete continued its excavations in the island at two points, Agia Triada and Gortys. In Agia Triada there was brought to light a prehistoric town of the Minoan age, in the middle of which is situated the Lesser Palace, which was discovered some years ago, and contained the works of Minoan art which are now so well-known.

After the gates of the Agora had been excavated, there came to light, in the western part of the area, the most ancient portion of the town, in which the buildings had been erected very closely together. In these houses many domestic utensils were discovered. The excavations in this quarter have been terminated by the discovery of a small temple, its front supported by three columns similar to those represented upon the panels of Knossos.

The Archæological School of Athens also continued its excavations at Gortys, which was not only the most important town of central Crete until the archaic Hellenic period, but became the capital of the island during Roman times. Excavations were made upon the site of the citadel and the amphitheatre, where there was discovered a statue of heroic proportions belonging to the scheme of decoration of the amphitheatre. On the eastern side of the Pythios Apollon

remnants of a monumental fountain, which had been decorated with columns, statues and inscriptions, were found. This fountain would appear to have been constructed, during the time of the Empire, out of materials taken from more ancient structures. The remains of a second fountain of similar construction were also discovered.

The most important discovery has, however, been made in the circular building of the Agora, which seems to have been a theatre built by the Romans upon the foundations of a Greek building of earlier date. This in its turn was erected upon the ruins of a prehistoric structure. Attached to the walls of the oldest building were found tablets containing the ancient Codex, of which the great "Inscription of Laws" of Gortys, discovered at this spot by Professor Halbherr in 1884, was a mere extract. It was impossible until this year to make any excavations upon the site, owing to the fact that the river Letheos flowed over the ruins. Now, however, the eastern half of the site has been excavated, and, an embankment having been constructed from the earth dug up, in order to deflect the course of the stream, it will be possible next year to excavate the remaining half.

It will thus be seen that the excavations which have this year been carried out in Crete are of the utmost importance, as much for ascertaining the character of the buildings, as for elucidating the question of the origin of the "Inscriptions."

Some very interesting discoveries have just been made by Mr. Arvanitopoulos, Ephor of Antiquities for Thessaly, in excavations recently made by him in Laspochori, near Ambelakia, in Thessaly. They consisted of tombs of the Geometrical period and, near these, the fort of ancient Omolion. A temple was also brought to light at the spot, together with other very important architectural remains. We hope to be able to give our readers a complete description of these discoveries in an early number.

During the excavation of the temple of Cassius Zeus, at Corfu, there has been discovered a Byzantine church, Panagia Cassopetra, the foundations of which rest upon those of the older structure. According to tradition, it was upon this spot that Cæsar and Agrippina sat and wept over the fate of young Britannicus.

There have recently been deposited in the Museum of the Piræus the upper portion of a tomb bearing upon the semicircular top a representation in bas-relief of a syren playing upon a lyre. On each side of this is a weeping female figure in a kneeling position. Besides these fragments other portions of the original group have also been found. Among these are the heads of a man and a woman, a little smaller than natural size. The relief bears in fourth-century characters the following inscription:

Προξενίδης Μενίππη
'Αριστοδίκη Προξενίδου Στειριέως γυνή.

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MODERN GREEK LITERATURE.

IMPRESSIONS FROM THE SEA.

By AGGELOS TANAGRAS.

Among the characteristics which the Greeks and the English are said to possess in common is a deep feeling of reverence and affection for the sea. To this feeling admirable expression is given in the following example of Modern Greek Literature, which is from the pen of a well-known naval officer, whose productions over the pen-name of AGGELOS TANAGRAS *have for long delighted the Greek reading public. The language in which the sketch is written is a good example of the colloquial tongue enriched by importations from classical sources.*

Χιλιάδες χιονάτα προβατάκια βόσκουν εἰς τὴν ἀπέραντον ἔκτασιν τοῦ πελάγους, καὶ ὁ δυνατὸς βοσκός των, ὁ ὁρμητικὸς Πουνέντες, μὲ σφυρίγματα, μὲ βοή, μὲ ὠρυγμοὺς τὰ διευθύνει εἰς τὸν δρόμον των.

Καὶ εἰς τὴν κορυφὴν κάθε κύματος νέα ἀρνάκια σκιρτοῦν κοντὰ εἰς τὰς μητέρας των, τρέχουν δίπλα των, ἀκολουθοῦν τὸ πέρασμά των, χάνονται, πάλιν ἐμφανίζονται ὑπὸ τὴν ἀόρατον ἀγκλίτσαν, ἡ ὁποία τὰ συμμαζεύει καὶ τὰ κυβερνᾷ.

Χιλιάδες ἄσπροι γλάροι ἔχουν καθίσει εἰς τὴν γαλανὴν πλατεῖαν τοῦ Αἰγαίου. Δὲν βλέπει κανεὶς παρὰ ἀτελείωτον λευκοφτερούγισμα.

Ἀριστερᾷ μας εἶνε αἱ τελευταῖαι Κυκλάδες, δεξιᾷ ἡ γυμνὴ καὶ κοκκινωπὴ ράχις τοῦ Μαλέα, ράχις κοιμωμένου ζώου, βυσσοδομοῦντος τρικυμίας καὶ καταστροφάς.

Ἡ λευκὴ ὅμως ἐξάνθησις τοῦ ἡλιοφωτίστου πόντου ἡμερώνει τὴν ἄξενόν του ὄψιν.

Εἶναι ἡμέρα φωτός, χαρᾶς καὶ θριάμβου.

Τρίτωνες παίζουν μὲ Νηρηΐδας εἰς τὰ κύματα. Ἱππόκαμποι κυνηγοῦνται εἰς τοὺς ἀφρούς. Ἡ Ἀμφιτρίτη περνᾷ ὁλόλευκος εἰς τὴν μαργαρίνην κογχύλην της, καὶ ὁ θεὸς τῶν θαλασσῶν ὁδηγεῖ διὰ μέσου τῶν ἀφρῶν τὸ ἅρμα του, εὐφραινόμενος εἰς τὸ ὑγρὸν βασίλειόν του.

Ὅλος ὁ μαγικὸς ἀρχαῖος κόσμος τοῦ μύθου, ὁ κόσμος τοῦ κάλλους καὶ τῶν μακρυνῶν παραδόσεων, προβάλλει τὴν στιγμὴν αὐτὴν ἀπὸ τοὺς ὁμιχλώδεις πέπλους τῶν χιλιετηρίδων του καὶ ἀποκαλύπτεται μὲ τὸ πρῖσμα αὐτὸ τῶν χρωμάτων τοῦ ἀκτινοβολήματος, τοῦ θριάμβου εἰς τοὺς ὀφθαλμούς μας!

* * * * * * *

Ὁ μέγας βοσκὸς τῶν ἄσπρων ἀφρῶν αὐξάνει ἔξαφνα τὸ ὁρμητικόν του φύσημα καὶ ἀμέσως ἡ σκηνογραφία ἀλλάσσει.

Ἐπάνω ἀπὸ κάθε ἀφρὸν καὶ κάθε κῦμα τινάσσονται λευκοὶ ἀχνοί. Τὸ φωτεινὸν χάιδι τοῦ ἡλίου θλᾶται εἰς κάθε μίαν ἀπὸ αὐτὰς τὰς ἀτμίδας καὶ ὅλον τὸ πέλαγος γεμίζει διὰ μιᾶς μὲ μικρὰς ἴριδας.

Εἶναι ἕνας μαγικὸς κάμπος Ἠλυσίων, ὅπου εἰς τελάρον ὀνείρου γνέθονται τὰ ἁβρότατα κόκκινα καὶ γαλάζια καὶ μενεξελιὰ νήματα τοῦ φωτός. Κάποιος ἀντικατοπτρισμὸς τῶν μυστικῶν κήπων τῶν φωτεινῶν βυθῶν ἁπλώνεται εἰς τὴν φωτοβυθισμένην θάλασσαν.

* * * * * * *

Thousands of snowy sheep are grazing upon the immense expanse of the sea, and their robust shepherd, the impetuous *Ponente*, drives them on their way with whistling, shouting, and roaring.

On the summit of each wave new-born lambs are frisking near their dams, running by their side, following the course of their mothers, again to reappear under the guidance of the unseen crook which gathers and directs them.

Thousands of white sea-mews have settled upon the blue expanse of the Ægean. One sees nothing but an endless fluttering of white wings.

On our left are the last of the Cyclades; on our right the bare, ruddy shoulder of the Malea, the shoulder of a slumbering animal brooding upon tempests and destruction.

But the white efflorescence of the blue, sun-lit sea tempers its inhospitable look.

It is a day of light, of joy, and of triumph.

Tritons sport with Nereids in the waves; sea-horses chase one another amid the foam. Amphytrite clad in white passes in her pearly shell, and the God of the Sea drives his chariot through the waves, rejoicing in his watery realm.

All the magic ancient mythical world, the world of beauty and remote traditions, comes into view at this moment out of the misty veil of the centuries, and reveals itself to our eyes through a prism of colours of radiance, and triumph!

* * * * * * *

The great shepherd of the white crests increases suddenly his impetuous blasts, and immediately the scene changes.

From the summit of each crest and of each wave there is flung a white cloud of spray. The caressing sunlight is reflected upon each shower of spray, and all the sea is suddenly filled with tiny rainbows.

It is a magical Elysian plain where in a dream frame are woven the delicate red, blue and purple threads of light. A reflection of the secret gardens of the radiant depths is extended over the sea intoxicated with light.

* * * * * * *

Καὶ ἔξαφνα δύο-τρία χέρια δείχνουν τὴν θάλασσαν· Ἕνας ὅμιλος ναυτῶν μαζεύεται εἰς τῆς ἁλυσσίδες.

Δίπλα μας, ὀλίγα μέτρα μακρὰν ἀπὸ τοὺς θυμωμένους ἀφροὺς ποὺ σηκώνει τὸ πλοῖον, μία ἀληθινὴ διαδήλωσις ἀπὸ γλυστερὰς μαυρωπὰς ράχεις πηδᾷ κατὰ γραμμὴν ἐπάνω ἀπὸ τὰ κύματα.

Μίαν στιγμὴν τὸ μάτι προφθάνει νὰ ἰδῇ ἕνα μυτερὸν ρύγχος καὶ διχαλωτὴν οὐρὰν, νὰ παρακολουθήσῃ ἀκόμη ὁλόκληρον τὸ σῶμα, τὸ ὁποῖον ἀφ' οὗ γράψῃ χαριτωμένην καμπύλην, λαμβάνει κάτω ἀπὸ τὸ κῦμα ἀνταυγείας πρασινωπάς.

Εἶναι δελφίνια, οἱ φίλοι τῶν ναυτίλων, οἱ σωτῆρες τοῦ Ἀρίωνος, ποὺ παίζουν ἄφοβα δίπλα εἰς τὸ θωρηκτὸν καὶ παραβγαίνουν εἰς τὸ τρέξιμόν του.

Πηγαίνουν, ἔρχονται, πηδοῦν τὸ ἓν κατόπιν τοῦ ἄλλου εἰς γραμμὴν παραγωγῆς, χωρὶς νὰ ἔχουν ἰδέαν τακτικῆς λοξεύουν μίαν στιγμὴν πρὸς τὴν ἕλικα, προπορεύονται, ξαναγυρίζουν πάλιν. Ἔπειτα διὰ μιᾶς, ὡσὰν κατόπιν μυστικοῦ σήματος, χάνονται. Ποῦ ἐξηφανίσθησαν;

Κάτω, κάτω εἰς τὰ πρασινωπὰ βάθη, εἰς τοὺς μυστηριώδεις βυθοὺς τοῦ φωτεινοῦ στοιχείου των, ὅπου δὲν ἠμπορεῖ νὰ τὰ φθάσῃ ὁ ἀνθρώπινος ὀφθαλμός.

* * * * * * *

Μακρὰν, πολύχρωμος σειρὰ σημάτων ἀναβαίνει ἀπὸ τὸ θωράκιον τῆς ναυαρχίδος.

Ὁ σημαιοφόρος μὲ τοὺς οἰακιστὰς τῆς ὑπηρεσίας παίρνουν ἀμέσως τοὺς ἀριθμούς των καὶ ἀναφυλλίζουν γρήγορα-γρήγορα τὸ σηματολόγιον.

Τὸ σῆμα διατάσσει:

«Κολύμβημα κατὰ βούλησιν.»

καὶ τὰ πλοῖα κροτοῦν, ὁ μακρὸς ξύλινος λεμβοῦχος σταυρώνεται, ἡ ἐπιτελὶς καθαιρεῖται μὲ διαπεραστικὸν στρίγγλισμα τῶν μακαράδων, καὶ μετ' ὀλίγα λεπτὰ ἡ ἥσυχος θάλασσα γεμίζει ἀπὸ μελαψὰ ζωηρὰ κεφάλια καὶ μυώδη σώματα, τὰ ὁποῖα τὴν σχίζουν ἐδῶ καὶ 'κεῖ.

Τί κατὰ βούλησιν! . . . Ὅλοι πέφτουν: πηδοῦν, κυβιστίζουν, βουτοῦν, ἀνασκελώνονται, ἀλληλοκυνηγοῦνται, γεμίζουν τὴν θάλασσαν μὲ κάποιαν ζωηρὰν καὶ παιγνιώδη ζωὴν, ἐνῷ ἐκείνη ἀναφουσκώνεται κάθε τόσον ἀπὸ τὸ βαρὺ κουφόκυμα τῆς πελωρίας ἀναπνοῆς της, φουσκώνει σὰν ἀνάσασμα στήθους καταπληκτικοῦ, ἀναιβάζει μαζὶ τὰ ναυτόπουλα ποὺ ἔχουν ἐμπιστευθῇ εἰς τὴν ἀγκαλιά της, καὶ πάλιν χαμηλώνει, σὰν φιλόστοργος γιαγιὰ ποὺ εὐφραίνεται ὅτι κρατεῖ εἰς τοὺς κόλπους της τὰ ἄτακτα ἐγγονάκια της.

Καὶ τίποτε δὲν τονώνει τὸ ἀτομικὸν θάρρος ὅσον τὸ μεσοπέλαγον αὐτὸ κολύμβημα, εἰς μέρος τὸ ὁποῖον σχίζουν μόνον σιδερένιες ἕλικες καὶ τρόπιδες καραβιῶν. Εἶναι μαζὶ λουτρὸν ὑγείας καὶ θάρρους.

Ἄλλη ὅμως σειρὰ σημάτων ἀπὸ τὴν ναυαρχίδα σημαίνει παῦσιν κολυμβήματος καὶ συγχρόνως ἐπανάληψιν τῆς πορείας, τόσας μοίρας πρὸς Ζέφυρον. Γρήγορα γρήγορα ὅλοι ἀναρριχῶνται ὡσὰν σχοινοβάται ἀπὸ τῆς ἀνεμόσκαλες, ὁ μακρὸς λεμβοῦχος ἐντίθεται, ἡ ἐπιτελὶς ἀνακρεμᾶται μὲ τὸ ἴδιον στρίγγλισμα τῆς τροχαλίας, καὶ ἡ μοῖρα εὐθύνει πρῴραν πρὸς Δυσμάς.

Ἀπέναντί μας προβάλλει τώρα, πάντοτε καθαρωτέρα, ἡ βραχώδης καὶ χαμηλὴ ἀκτὴ τοῦ Ταινάρου.

Suddenly two or three hands point to the water. A group of sailors gathers about the chains.

Alongside of us, a few yards away from the passionate crests which the ship is spreading, a veritable procession of slippery blackish backs leaps in lines along the waves.

For a moment the eye obtains a glance of a pointed snout and a forked tail, then it perceives the whole body, which, after curving gracefully in the water, assumes under the waves a greenish hue.

They are the dolphins, the friends of sailor-men, the saviours of Areon, which gambol fearlessly alongside the battleship and outstrip it.

They go and come, leap one after the other in line of battle; without having any knowledge of tactics they sweep towards the propeller, outstrip us, and return. Then suddenly, as if they had received a secret signal, they disappear. Whither have they gone?

Down, down into the greenish depths, into the mysterious abysses of their luminous element whither the human eye cannot penetrate.

* * * * * * *

Far away a string of many-coloured signals ascends from the mast-top of the flag-ship.

The signaller and the steersmen on duty immediately write down the characters, and rapidly consult the signal-book.

The signal commands:

"Swimming at discretion!"

and the boats creak, the long wooden foresail boom swings across, the officers' cutter is let fall with a piercing screech of pulleys, and in a few moments the calm sea is filled with swarthy, animated heads and muscular bodies which cleave her in all directions.

What a discretion! . . . Everyone tumbles into the sea. They duck, they spring, they dive, they turn on their back, chase one another, they fill the sea with vivacious and sportive life, while she is raised up at intervals by the immense heaving of her tremendous respiration, she swells like the breathing of an enormous breast, heaps up in a mass the sailors who entrusted themselves within her embrace, and subsides again, like an affectionate grandmother who delights to hold in her arms her naughty grandchildren.

Nothing strengthens the character of the individual so much as this swimming in the open sea, in a place which is cleft only by iron propellers and ships' keels. It is a bath both of health and of courage.

But another series of signals from the flag-ship signifies "Stop swimming!" and, at the same time, "Resume the journey, so many degrees to the westward.' Very speedily all climb like acrobats up the rope-ladders, the long foresail-booom is rigged into its place, the officers' cutter is hooked on again with the same creaking of pulleys, and the division turns its bows to the westward.

Before us now rises more and more clearly the rocky and low-lying shore of Tænarum.

REVIEWS.

THE GREEKS IN AMERICA. *

AMERICA is growing increasingly fastidious about the character of the immigrants whom she admits to her shores. Less than a generation ago her arms were open to all who cared to come. Finns, Poles, Russians, Germans, Danes, Italians, French, English, Scotch and Irish were welcomed with hearty effusiveness, and the ease with which these widely divergent elements were assimilated into the national life formed one of the most astonishing episodes in the history of mankind.

But in these later years a spirit of exclusiveness has been growing up among the American people. The wide prairie lands of the West are no longer open to any who may care to go and settle there. "Keep out the foreigner" is the battle-cry of Young America, and in response the legislature has passed enactments placing severe restrictions upon immigration, and men with scientific proclivities have devoted themselves assiduously to the task of "looking the gift horse in the mouth."

The result of the labours of one of these investigators of the sources of American immigration lies before us in the shape of a volume entitled "Greek Immigration into the United States." Its author is Dr. Henry Pratt Fairchild, and it is published by the Yale University Press, New Haven, U.S.A.

In his preface Dr. Fairchild states that the work was prepared, under the personal guidance of Professor A. G. Keller, as a part of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in connection with the Department of Anthropology in Yale University. In a financial sense it seems to have been promoted by the Carnegie Institution of Washington.

Dr. Fairchild divides his book into three parts. The first deals with the Conditions, Causes, and Sources of Immigration; the second with the Greeks in the United States; and the third with the Effects of Immigration. It is only upon the second of these that any reliance need be put, and then only in a limited degree.

It has seldom been our lot to encounter a more illogical mind, working under the garb of the scientific investigator, than that of Dr. Fairchild. Even where he gets his facts right, which is not invariably the case, he usually contrives to deduce from them the obviously wrong conclusion. A good example of this perversity of reasoning occurs on pages 207 and 292. The latter folio is occupied by a double table showing the classification of advertisements in the Greek journal *Atlantis*.

At first sight, the use of this statistical matter is not quite apparent; but on turning to the former page we find that Dr. Fairchild directs special attention to the fact that among these advertisements are several of cures for private diseases. Will it be credited that Dr. Fairchild actually adduces this circumstance as a proof of the immorality of the readers of the *Atlantis?* We do not know of any other mind to which this conclusion would have presented itself save that of Dr. Fairchild. All that it would signify to the ordinary man, if it signified anything at all, would be a slight remissness on the part of the advertisement manager of the *Atlantis* as to the character of the advertisements which he admitted to his columns.

Of the race of people with whom the book professes to deal Dr. Fairchild seems to have had but the slightest personal acquaintance. "During a five-weeks' trip through the Greek mainland," he writes on page 38, "I recall seeing only two men who gave evidence of being intoxicated." This phrase, "a five-weeks' trip," gives the key-note of the whole to the book. As the reader plods through the amusing mass of blunders, inaccuracies, contradictions, and inconsequentialities that go to make up the greater part of the volume, he can form a very vivid mental picture of Dr. Fairchild on his personally conducted five-weeks' trip, scurrying through Greece note-book in hand, darting from the beaten route for an instant to address a breathless query to some startled peasant, and then rushing off again, almost before his auditor has had time to frame a reply.

Were it not so ludicrous, one might be tempted to stigmatise as gross impertinence Dr. Fairchild's effort to write a professedly scientific treatise upon one of the most complex and difficult to be understood races in Europe with such slender equipment.

It may of course be contended that a thorough first-hand knowledge is not essential to the execution of such a task as that to which Dr. Fairchild applied himself, and that a very satisfactory result may be achieved, after a careful study of the authorities, by a scholar who knows how to present a well-balanced review of the whole. But this is precisely what Dr. Fairchild has failed to do. He appears to have made the acquaintance of a good many of the more accessible writings upon the subject of Greece, but has proved wholly unequal to the task of co-ordinating the varied and often conflicting views of the writers.

In consequence of this defect, Dr. Fairchild, when writing his book, has been blown about like a scientific weather-cock, changing his attitude with the opinions expressed by the particular author whose work was at the moment before him. His book in consequence partakes largely of the nature of a literary patchwork, as must be the case with the productions of every writer who is unable to check the statements of others by his own experience; and consequently the most amusing contradictions meet the eye everywhere in the book, sometimes within a few lines of each other.

On page 21, for instance, Dr. Fairchild says that the Greeks who arrive in America have "a very general intention to return eventually to their native land," and on the very next page he asserts that "a very large proportion" of them "come with the idea of making this their home as long as life shall last."

On page 217 he says that the Greeks in America "are willing to undergo extreme privations in order to send money home" for family and patriotic objects, and on page 210 that "the Greek is very proud of his native citizenship and is not anxious to give it up"; then on page 211 he asserts that a very large proportion of the Greeks who emigrate to America "characterise their native land as a poor and miserable place, and many a profane Americanism is ostentatiously displayed to show that scorn they feel for it"!

On page 65, Dr. Fairchild alludes to "the inveterate factionalism and commercial dishonesty so characteristic of the (Greek) race"; and then says on page 187, "Those whom he" (a fraudulent contractor) "has discharged must find work for themselves somewhere to pay off their mortgages. The Greeks display a strange faithfulness in paying off debts of this kind, no matter how badly they have been treated, even if the agreement was simply oral," and again on page 169, "The best evidence of the quality of service rendered by the Greeks is that they succeed. The American people are not usually systematically defrauded."

But it would be impossible to quote all the discrepancies which teem in Dr. Fairchild's volume. There is however one charge of a general nature which he makes against the Greeks, and which is flatly contradicted by his own statistics, to which we must allude before leaving this section of the work.

Throughout the book Dr. Fairchild repeatedly states that the Greeks are spiteful and treacherous to one another, and always ready to exploit anyone of their race; that they are continually quarrelling among

* "Greek Immigration to the United States." By Henry Pratt Fairchild. New Haven: Yale University Press.

themselves; and that it is impossible to get them to co-operate in any undertaking. Now a careful examination of the most reliable — or rather, the least unreliable — portion of Dr. Fairchild's book, that dealing with the Greek colonies in America, will show that whatever difficulties the American authorities encounter in dealing with the Greeks arise from the display of quite the opposite qualities. So far from being spiteful and treacherous to one another, it is extremely difficult for the American authorities to convict an offender who is a Greek, owing to the loyalty with which his compatriots defend him. Against the charge of exploiting one another is to be set the admission that pauperism is practically unknown among the Greeks in America because of the readiness with which they assist one another in times of adversity. That they are quarrelsome and reluctant to co-operate is disproved by the complaint of the American authorities that the Greeks seldom marry and settle down in America as independent units, preferring to live in colonies on a system of co-operative house-keeping. All these admissions are made by Dr. Fairchild himself!

How the Greeks have come to be accused of quarrelling is perhaps accounted for in an amusing passage which follows a reference by Dr. Fairchild to what he calls "the excitability of the Greeks": —

"A noisy altercation which disturbs a whole block, and seems to the police officer to threaten a fatal culmination, may be the friendliest kind of an argument. The police officer, of course, cannot get at the true nature of the case, and the whole lot are taken off to the police station."

When absurdities like those which we have cited occur in the less unreliable portions of Dr. Fairchild's book, an estimate can easily be formed of the character of the remainder. Indeed, of the sections which deal with "The National Character" of the Greeks and their "Religion and Language" we can hardly bring ourselves to speak seriously. From beginning to end they are one discordant jangle of blunders, inaccuracies and inconsistencies. We commenced an enumeration of the errors in the author's attempt to deal with the Greek language on pages 53 and 54, but grew tired of it when little more than half-way through. Dr. Fairchild's knowledge of the Greek language appears to be about on a level with his knowledge of the Greek people, and was perhaps acquired in much the same way, viz., "during a five-weeks' trip through the Greek mainland."

Out of the abounding stupidities in the section dealing with the "National Character" we shall only select one specimen. This occurs in connection with Dr. Fairchild's account of the circumstances which led up to the last Græco-Turkish War, and the information is presented by the author on the testimony of a gentleman "whose authority is unquestionable": —

"The Greek people were sincere in their rage against Turkey and in their zeal for war. When it became evident that the King would be forced either to declare war or to abdicate, the Powers of Europe saw that if the work of the past thirty years was not to be wholly undone, some action must be taken at once. Accordingly the British Minister, the Greek Minister, the Turkish Minister, and perhaps one or two others, got together and planned out the whole war beforehand. The battles, attacks, and retreats were all arranged in advance. The fighting was planned in such a way as to cause the least possible bloodshed on both sides, while giving the people a chance to exhaust some of their war fervour. The Greek fleet was allowed to bombard a small village near the coast, but was not permitted to molest any of the Turkish trains. The Turkish Government on its part agreed to withdraw its troops from Crete, and cede Thessaly to Greece."

Dr. Fairchild's leg has evidently been badly pulled by the gentleman whose authority was unquestionable.

Taken altogether, Dr. Fairchild's book makes very entertaining reading, often in places where the author intended to be most serious. In his "Adventures of Costa" he confessedly writes in an imaginative vein, and his success in the management of this pleasing little sketch demonstrates that he would have been more in his element as a writer of romances than as a scientific investigator.

The book is embellished by a number of beautiful illustrations, and is both clearly printed and tastefully bound. The index is however totally inadequate.

H.

PRESS REVIEW.

THE DANGER IN THE NEAR EAST.

The statement read in the Austrian and Hungarian Chambers illustrates the uneasiness and jealousy with which the Dual Monarchy would regard any extension of the sphere of operations in the direction of the Adriatic. For the present the danger of any extension of the kind is latent; but it might suddenly become acute were the Turks to take ill-advised measures against the Italians in Turkey, or were active resistance to the expeditionary force to be prolonged. All of the Balkan States are in a condition of subdued excitement, and nobody can prophesy how long it may remain subdued. Our Cettinge message this morning tells us that the Klementis are again causing uneasiness on the Montenegrin frontiers. The murder of the Metropolitan of Grevena, following hard upon that of the Bishop of Koritza, has exasperated the Greeks, who were already angered by the movements of Turkish troops near the frontier. All of the Balkan States declare that they will not be the first to move, but all practically admit that, if once a shot is fired in the peninsula, they will join in the fray until it becomes general. They will hardly move with the severe Balkan winter at hand; but after the "melting of the snows" in the spring, it might be hard to restrain them. Count Aehrenthal, our Vienna Correspondent informs us, is believed to have a policy. It is that the Great Powers should take unanimous and simultaneous action at the proper moment. It is no doubt an excellent policy, but, as our Correspondent points out, it has this rather serious drawback, that before the proper moment arrives — which means before Turkey is ready to cede Tripoli to Italy — Balkan complications may spring up which will make joint action by the Powers, to say the least, extremely improbable. — *The Times*, Oct. 25.

COMMITTEE OF DISUNION AND REACTION.

The occupation effected, the next thing will be to escape as quickly as possible from the state of war. That should be as agreeable to Turkey as to Italy. It is perhaps a question of finding the proper formula and the right phraseology, a task to which diplomacy may prove equal. A prior condition is perhaps the formation of a Ministry at Constantinople, which would be easier if there were no Committee, misnamed, of Union and Progress, at Salonika. The Committee, which for a long time past has not represented the Turkish reformers, but has been a source of disunion and of reaction, is said to have contributed to preventing Kiamil Pasha from taking office, probably because his honesty is above suspicion. Said Pasha is, however, also a man of tried integrity, and Mahmud Shevket has well done the tasks that have fallen to him. These Ministers will not encourage the agitators who want to make fresh disturbances. — *Morning Post*, Oct. 3.

NATIONAL BANK OF GREECE.

ASSETS, 31st October, 1911.		30th Oct. 1911. * Drachmae.		31st Sept. 1911. * Drachmae.	
Funds — Cash		3,503,478	07	3,524,865	72
Funds — Ionian Bank, Bonds		506,345	—	356,680	—
Funds — Ditto, of one or two Drachmae		1,159,614	—	1,057,188	—
In Foreign Banks — Gold		40,508,361	52	43,580,591	74
In Foreign Banks — Proceeds of the 1902 4% Hellenic Railways Loan		160,357	83	173,713	83
* Loan to the State		61,778,575	42	61,778,575	42
Ditto in land 2 Drachmae issues		9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
National Loan Bonds — in gold	Dr. 26,079,118 . 75	60,554,292	50	60,630,910	50
National Loan Bonds — in paper	Dr. 34,617,201 . 25				
National Agricultural (Thessaly) Loan		1,440,000	—	1,440,000	—
Hellenic Government Treasury Bonds		5,150,903	82	5,150,903	82
Bills of Exchange to be collected		21,273,213	37	21,394,815	23
Maturing Bills of Exchange		3,541,762	21	3,519,040	81
Advances on Securities		23,034,855	27	23,508,951	15
Advances on Merchandise		6,227,775	11	4,553,302	92
Loans and Current Accounts on Mortgage		70,378,948	34	72,421,044	26
Loans to Communities, Harbours, and other legal bodies		46,181,948	83	46,264,436	98
* Agricultural Drafts		11,912,143	75	13,006,033	75
Maturing Agricultural Drafts		5,616,441	90	5,566,492	35
Shares in Local Companies		7,471,158	20	7,471,158	20
Participation in the Bank of Crete		1,250,000	—	1,250,000	—
Bonds — Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece — Bank Bonds at 2½ %		728,182	35	733,874	76
Bank and Premises		2,246,440	94	9,267,702	77
* Doubtful Debts		3,526,210	11	3,499,776	75
Establishment Expenses (mostly for the manufacture of Bank Bonds)		1,394,002	11	1,389,140	41
Sundry Accounts		2,574,379	37	2,373,619	64
Sundry Foreign Accounts		3,881,597	24	2,197,096	88
Redemption of State Participation in the Profits of the Bank		1,075,200	—	1,075,200	—
Redemption of the privilege of the Epiro-Thessalian Bank		560,100	—	560,000	—
Commission for Conversion of the Loan with drawings, in Bank Bonds		50,000	—	50,000	—
Sundries		822,146	25	684,997	96
	Dr	407,307,84	49	408,230,112	84

LIABILITIES.					
Capital — in 20,000 Shares		20,000,000	—	20,000,000	—
Reserve Fund		13,500,000	—	13,500,000	—
Bank Bonds —					
1. For the account of the Government	Dr. 61,778,575 . 42	124,291,017	22	125,305,490	34
2. For the account of the Bank	Dr. 49,820,329 . 73	124,291,017	22	125,305,490	34
Bank Notes of 1 and 2 drachmae		9,750,000	—	9,750,000	—
Deposits in specie without Interest		9,547,315	36	11,964,352	16
Deposits without Interest		19,691,782	95	21,069,671	56
Demand Notes		1,608,729	25	1,491,208	41
Unclaimed Dividends		228,430	—	284,035	—
International Financial Control — % of payment of Revenues affected — Gold	Dr. 763,638 . 30				
International Financial Control — % of payment of Revenues affected — Notes	Dr. 4,282,520 . 64	4,477,717	77	1,874,092	16
Service of the State Loans — Gold		640,396	80	705,659	05
Ditto, in Bank Notes		306,431	22	372,560	37
State Deposits — Gold		4,808	39	4,808	39
Ditto, Bank Notes		15,062	65	15,062	65
State Deposits — For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway — Gold		160,357	83	173,713	83
State Deposits — For the construction of Piraeus-Demerli-Frontier Railway — Notes					
Deposits at Interest		1,527	21	59,996	21
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Gold at 3 %		119,098,362	26	118,799,336	18
Loan with drawings of the National Bank of Greece, Bank Notes at 2½ %		40,574,160	—	40,571,160	—
Service of the Loan with drawings, Gold at 3 %		20,367,900	—	20,367,900	—
Ditto, Bank Notes at 2½ %		1,495,698	—	1,727,474	—
Savings Bank		267,345	—	280,142	50
Bills to be paid		13,418,013	18	13,275,501	83
Sundries		7,263,061	40	6,624,948	20
	Dr.	407,307,846	49	408,230,112	84

*At the present rate of exchange Dr. 25.40 equal £1 sterling, so that the Drachma is practically equivalent to a Franc.

The Governor,
S. STREIT.

The Chief Accountant,
P. A. KOUTZALEXIS.

Athens, October, 1911.

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