

Report on Smyrna.

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REPORT

ON
S M Y R N A.

By *George Rolleston*



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To the Right Hon. the Secretary of State for War.

MY LORD,

I HAVE the honour to submit herewith to your Lordship a Report on Smyrna, prepared by me in compliance with your Lordship's request, with the assistance of the Medical Officers composing the Civil Staff of the late Hospital at that Station.

I have the honour to be

Your Lordship's obedient Servant,

GEORGE ROLLESTON.

Nov. 1, 1856.

To His Excellency the Secretary of State for War

My Lord

I have the honor to submit herewith to your
Lordship a Report on the progress of the
work done with your Lordship's request, with the
assistance of the Medical Officers commanding the
Staff of the late Hospital at that Station.

I have the honor to be

Your Lordship's obedient servant

GEORGE ROLLISTON

Nov. 1. 1866.

REPORT ON SMYRNA.

GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION.

UNLIKE Constantinople, and unlike Sebastopol, Smyrna has no undulations in its surface which can cover a single house, either from the sea breeze or the guns of a vessel of war. Its houses are either ranged like the seats in an amphitheatre along the sides of a semicircular line of hills, or on the slopes and levels between those hills and the water edge. General view.

It has few open places or squares, and these are mostly planted with the sombre spike-like cypress, telling of graves beneath, but also obviating the glare and heat which would otherwise in this climate render an open space, surrounded by stone or brick buildings, quite insupportable in the summer heats. The narrowness of the streets, and the downward sloping and converging roofs, whatever disadvantages they may cause, and however they may impede traffic, have at least the merit of preventing the reflection of heat, and securing a constant undercurrent of cool air. The bazaars, which are simply narrow streets of shops, with an awning or tiling stretched from the roof of one side to that of the other, preserve an equable and agreeable temperature in the very hottest weather.

The town cannot in fairness be spoken of as dirty; it possesses numberless open as well as numberless covered gutters, but the draught of water through them is rapid, and it is rare for the senses to be offended by foul smells or by the sight of putrescent matters. The water is brought in covered aqueducts from springs at some distance from the town, and at a considerable elevation in the hills, and thus freedom from organic impurities and rapidity of flow is at once provided for.

Particular
description.

The town of Smyrna, when seen at a distance from the deck of a vessel entering the bay, appears to be built partly upon a strip of level and partly upon sloping ground lying between the sea and a hilly background, partly to be creeping up and along the sides of these very hills.

Triangle
formed by the
town.

On a nearer view it is seen that at the southern extremity of the town, a little to the right of a large red building, lately the British barracks, a bar of hills of moderate elevation abuts upon the water edge at a point easily distinguishable by the presence of a round tower. This point may be considered as the apex of a triangle, one side of which is formed by the seaboard and the other by the hill range, while the base may be well represented by the Meles which flows close under the abrupt termination of the line of hill. The hill side of this triangle, Mount Pagus, runs south-east; its length may be estimated at one mile and a half; its altitude increases gradually from the round tower immediately overhanging the water edge at the apex of the triangle, where it is about 223 feet, to its other extremity, where it reaches 608 feet in height. This last point is marked by the Castle, at present a ruin of considerable size, though from the comparatively recent epoch (A.D. 1225) of its construction, of no great antiquarian interest. The hill range here breaks off abruptly, presenting a precipitous face towards the Meles, which flows round its base and begins here to form the base of the triangle. The world-wide fame of the Meles is not due to its depth or commercial importance; in summer it forms but a series of pools connected by small ankle-deep sheets of running water, and it is due to the absence of the protecting hill barrier, not to any inconvenience occasioned by the presence of the stream, that the town does not extend across further northwards. It has been found that houses built so far out in the plain, which stretches for seven miles beyond the Meles, as to lie outside the shelter, or, as one might say, beyond the shadow of Mount Pagus, are all but uninhabitable from malaria. A house was lately built upon a knoll a little to the

Malarious
region.

right of the Meles, and about 100 feet above the level of the stream; the prospect was beautiful, the drainage easy, and in every other respect the site appeared advantageous. But it was exposed to the full draught of air which rushes down the narrow gorge beyond and beneath Mount Pagus, through which winds the Meles, and so unhealthy has it proved itself that in spite of the great expense he had incurred in building a large house there the owner has been obliged to leave it uninhabited. In their proper place the sanitary conditions of the several localities will be considered, they have been alluded to here because they have so powerfully influenced the geographical distribution of the town. It is sufficient here to say that the obstacle opposed to the further outgrowth of the town in this direction has been found as impassable though it be invisible as that created on the one side by the sea and on the other by the mountains. The Meles flows down to the sea through a succession of gardens and vineyards, enclosed, most of them, by high mud walls, and save when swollen in the rainy season, it percolates its way through the sand and gravel into the bay at a spot about equidistant from its most inland extremity on the right hand, and from a point called "the Point" on the left, where the seaward boundary of Smyrna commences. This side of the triangle is the longest of the three, being about two miles and a half in length; the excellent Admiralty maps, however, obviate the necessity of giving a detailed description of it; it possesses several excellent piers and quays, and ships of such draught as H.M.S. "Terrible" may often be seen within 100 yards of the land. But there are no docks, wet or dry, no yards for shipbuilding, nor even any cranes to be found along the whole length of the seaboard of this the most important emporium of the Turkish empire.

Seaward
aspect.

Having thus given a sketch of the immediate boundaries of the town, we next proceed to describe the town itself. The different nations have different quarters of the town allotted to them; there is a Turk, an Armenian, a Greek, a Jewish, and an European quarter. On a bird's-eye view, these quar-

Quarters of the
town.

Turkish
quarter.

ters map themselves out unmistakeably to the spectator. The Turkish quarter is recognizable by the uniform dinginess of its roofs, which contrast by their dull ensemble with the tall white and elegant minaret which rises out so frequently from the midst of their sombre mass side by side with the tapering cypress; the Armenian quarter contrasts with the other quarters surrounding it by the whiteness of its walls and houses; and the Frank quarter is unmistakeably pointed out by the numerous flagstaffs of its several consulates. The Turkish quarter begins at the south-eastern extremity of the town, and stretches along the bank of hills forming its south-eastern boundary. The Turks have built their houses tier after tier up the hill side, until in some places they seem to be placed as it were on shelves ranged along the face of a perpendicular embankment. They seem to have tacitly recognized by their choice of locality their unfitness for maritime pursuits; they have clung to the hill side, and relinquished the water edge to more energetic and enterprising races. Most of the Turkish houses have an open gallery on their upper story, into which their several upper rooms open. It is generally supported upon arches decorated with painting and inscriptions, and constitutes a characteristic feature in the Turkish domestic architecture. The streets in this quarter are narrow, overhung by projecting windows and converging roofs; they have often an open gutter running down their centre, and a raised causeway on either side paved in the same way as the street itself. The excessive steepness of the streets in this quarter renders the absence of covered drains less injurious to the inhabitants than one might have supposed.

The "long
shore" houses.

Along the water edge the same character of building prevails as is usual everywhere in similar situations. As we proceed from the large barracks in a north-westerly direction, we pass by the Turkish custom-house and a battery, which has been lately rebuilt, and has twenty-four embrasures; further on we find the ruined walls of the castle, once occupied by the Knights of Rhodes (see page 19), now inhabited by an entirely Turkish population within,

and having a Turkish guard-house in one of its outer angles. Passing on through a vegetable, and then through a fish, market, we come upon a second, the European, custom-house, in which imports are received; and after three quarters of a mile of marine store shops and drinking houses, the esplanade opens upon us, where the British and several other consular agencies are situated. Parallel to this portion of the water edge, and about 200 yards from that line, runs the Frank street; the street containing most of the shops, and, as its name would imply, most of the dwelling-houses of the Europeans. This street, with the space between itself and the sea, constitutes the Frank quarter.

Frank Street.

Still following the water line we come, at the end of this handsome esplanade, upon a block of ill-built closely aggregated houses, a fragment of the Greek quarter, interposed between two portions of the European. Its streets are mere alleys; the houses are either the dwelling houses of the "long shore" Greek boatmen, or drinking houses of an almost exclusively Greek character, as the pictures on the walls show. It contains a second fish market and vegetable market; and part of the neighbourhood is appropriated to a colony of Maltese, chiefly boatmen. Along this part of the shore we may observe several wooden piers running out ten or twelve yards into the sea.

After this we come a second time upon well-built European houses. A long handsome but ill-paved street leads us parallel to the water's edge, and for a considerable distance, the limit of which is marked by the French hospital and a Turkish guard-house, the houses on either side are of a superior character, both as regards external appearance and internal comfort. Here are the French, Austrian, Prussian, Portuguese, and Greek consulates. As the street runs further north the character of its houses deteriorates, and before it terminates, and with it the town, at "the Point," a spot marked by a windmill some way short of the embouchure of the Meles, it loses most of its pleasing features. There is at this the northern, as at the southern, extremity of the town, a Turkish

barrack. It is capable of holding 115 men. Besides the windmill there is at the farthest extremity of the promontory, on the water edge, a large steam corn mill.

The town reaches no further in this direction, but a creek runs up inland for about a mile and a half, and on the Smyrna side of it there is an establishment for the repairing of ships; whilst opposite we see, at some distance inland, the village of Bournabat, where many of Europeans live in the summer time.

Returning back along the same route we find the Greek quarter on our left, between the street just described and the Mount Pagus, forming, in fact, a considerable portion of the base of the triangle, and stretching from north to south for nearly a mile and a half. The Armenian quarter also abuts upon the base of the triangle, and lies between the Greek quarter seawards and the Turkish towards the land for about three quarters of a mile, so that advancing from "the Point" inland south-east to the Castle Hill, we pass first through the Greek, next through the Armenian, and lastly through the Turkish quarter. At the south-west end of the Armenian quarter stands their large new church, which forms a striking object from all points. This portion of the town suffered very considerably from a fire in 1845, and when it was rebuilt after that event considerable attention was paid to the widening of the streets and other improvements. Though traces of the fire are to be recognized even now in the ruins of many houses, yet on the whole the quarter presents a pleasing and creditable appearance; the drainage is good, and in respect of cleanliness, it may well compare with any save an English town. The streets strike the attention by their great regularity and straightness, and the houses by the large size of their doors and windows. These are conditions rarely to be seen in an Asiatic town, and, though realized in the quarter allotted to an Asiatic race, show clearly that foreign models were followed in the reconstruction of this part of Smyrna.

The Greek quarter lies between the Armenian quarter, towards the land, and the Frank street

The Armenian
quarter.

The Greek
quarter.

and its northward continuation, looking seawards. The pavement in the Greek, as in the other quarters, differs from that in the Turkish, by possessing no causeway; as in the Turkish quarter, stones of all sizes are placed promiscuously in all parts of the roadway, but no attempt is made at any distinction in the Greek quarter between the middle and the sides of the street. A covered drain runs under the middle of most of the streets, and a stream of water rushes through it with considerable rapidity and volume. The roofing of these drains is often allowed to fall in, and it is surprising for how long a period the dangerous hole thus formed is allowed to remain unrepaired. In many parts of this quarter, however, especially in those towards its northern boundary, we find in place of a covered stream of sharply-flowing water, a sluggish broad uncovered drain, as offensive to the senses of the by-passer as deleterious to the health and vigour of those who live upon its banks. It is remarkable that many of the houses in the Greek quarter are one storied only; but it would be erroneous to suppose that houses of this description were occupied universally by members of the poorer classes. Many of these one-storied houses are built round a marble-floored court, which is generally of oblong form, with a fountain in the centre, and surrounded by a corridor, and they possess internal arrangements corresponding fully with the appearance of ease and comfort their exterior presents. The appearance of the whole quarter speaks of a general state of well-being and comfort amongst the restless stirring population it contains; the principal defects (besides those already mentioned) are the tortuosity of its streets, and the lack of uniformity in size and structure in the houses composing them. The Romaic population, though possessing this quarter to the almost entire exclusion of other races, is also to be found occupying patches of ground in the very centre of the quarters allotted to other nationalities. We have already mentioned one instance of this, where a block of Greek houses is wedged in between two portions of the Frank town along the seaboard. On the opposite boundary

of the town, we find an exactly analogous arrangement. High up on the hill side, which we have described as girdled by the Turkish quarter, we find a colony of Greeks clustered round their church of St. John, and thus breaking into what would otherwise be a continuous belt of Turkish houses.

The Jewish
quarter.

The Jewish quarter interdigitates with the Turkish, Armenian, and Greek at a point marked by the large Armenian church already mentioned, and within a few yards of that building the peculiar features, buildings, and dresses of these four races may be found and studied in complete distinctness. The Jews occupy a considerable area, which is bounded on the west by the Greeks, and on the east by the Turks; whilst the southern extremity of their quarter stretches some way up the hill side, and is entirely surrounded by Mussulman habitations. To the passing traveller this quarter is the least pleasing of all, and a more close examination will only confirm the impressions made by first appearances. Its characteristics are those presented by overcrowding and poverty, filth in the roadway, discomfort in the houses, and cachectic appearance in the inhabitants.

Surrounding
country; lower
hills.

The lower hills in the immediate vicinity of Smyrna are rocky, and to a considerable extent uncultivated. Patches, however, of various sizes, varying from an acre to an acre and a half, are every here and there redeemed from waste, and bear corn, wheat and barley, crops; and the olive grows where nothing else does, braving the heat with its polished leaves, and supplying itself with moisture in the midst of aridity. Long horizontal bands of green, of which the large-leaved fig forms a considerable part, may be observed girdling these hills, telling of the watercourse below. The water runs in a channel formed of stones strongly fastened together, and covered internally with cement. It is supplied from the mountain springs, some of which are perennial, and are, so long as the higher mountains are covered with wood to the extent they are at present, likely to remain so. Some of these aqueducts run a very long course, and speak of a time when a wealthier and stronger government than

the present ruled in Asia Minor. The arches on which they cross and recross the valleys are, in several instances, works of considerable magnificence. They contain a large volume of water, six inches deep by eighteen inches broad, with a very rapid flow. They subserve three principal purposes. They (i) turn numerous corn mills, (the windmill, the invention of Asia Minor, is not common nearer than Vourlah, but the commonest kind of all is the mill turned by horses, &c.); they furnish (ii) water for irrigation; and lastly, they are (iii) the chief and best source of water the town itself, with its numerous fountains, possesses.

The loftier hills, which are at a somewhat greater distance from the town, and range from 2,800 to 3,500 feet in height, are, in most cases, covered with vegetation to their very summit. This is an important fact, as it both indicates the character of the climate, which indeed it also goes some way to constitute, and the supply of water which the country enjoys. The trees which clothe these mountains are not calculated for shipbuilding purposes, as the large trees are principally pine and fir; and the oaks, which are even more numerous, are almost entirely of the dwarf species. Both kinds of wood, however, are extensively used for charcoal, of which the Levant possesses an unlimited supply, and the pine and fir furnish rafters for house building; whilst the *Quercus infectoria* and *Quercus ægilops* produce galls and valonea, all of them products of great local or general interest.

Mountains.

The several plains within a few hours' journey of Smyrna, and that which borders the city itself, present every variety in the degrees to which cultivation is carried. In some places we meet with large blocks of cultivated ground, the vineyard and fig garden alternating with the corn field, each and all enclosed with a stone or mud wall, and a ditch: bordering upon them we may find an equally extensive space of ground wholly waste and untilled, yet differing in no naturally conferred condition from its more productive neighbours. The valleys of the Cayster and its tributaries, the "*pinguia prata Caystri*," are at

The Plains.

present, owing possibly to their distance from the protection of any large Turkish town, and their consequent exposure to the depredations of robbers, who are to be found in any quantity in the islands lying close off the coast, in an almost entirely uncultivated state. A rich alluvial loam, of from four to six feet in thickness, bears nothing on its surface but the vitex agnus castus, and feeds nothing but a few sheep and multitudes of the feræ naturæ. This, however, is not the case with the valleys of the Hermus and Mæander, for a sketch of the latter of which, see Appendix, p. 105. An Englishman has within the last few years taken into his hands a large quantity of ground, under the classic ridge of the Tmolus, which separates the plain of Sedikioi and Boudja from that of the Cayster; and the rich green of his thickly standing crops contrasts pleasingly with the sun-burnt aspect of the surrounding untilled grass land.

The Gulph and Bay.

The town is built at the bottom of a gulph thirty-six miles long, the navigation through which is comparatively easy, and does not require the services of a pilot. There is a wide passage and deep water for the whole distance save at one point. This spot is marked by the point and Castle Sanjac on the south side of the bay, about five miles distant from the town. Towards this point, on the south side, there runs out a long spit from the northern side and the embouchure of the Hermus, and the clear interval between the two is little more than half a mile. It is not uncommon to see steamers and other vessels stuck fast upon this shoal, which is however free from rock, as being in great measure the deposit of the Hermus. During our residence in Smyrna this disaster never befel an English vessel. The increase of the shoal is not so considerable as to affect more than very remotely the future prospects of the port. It is as well to state that the name of the castle on this point is Sanjac, and not St. James' (St. Jacques) nor St. John's, as some of the best English maps have, somewhat amusingly, put it down.

Shoal at entrance of Bay.

See pages 18 and 63.

The name of the point is, like the castle upon it, of Turkish origin, and signifies Flag Point, Sanjac Bournou; but though the Turkish flag is, as the name

implies, very commonly flying on this point, and though extensive barracks are contained within the enceinte of its enormously thick walls, it is untenanted, save by one or two men, so malarious is its situation.

Mount Sipylus (3,205 feet in height) and the Two Brothers (2,920 feet), on the south of the straits, stand opposite to each other, like the portals of a large gateway. From these two points a horseshoe of mountain sweeps round and encloses Smyrna, and a maritime plain, of varying breadth and of almost unvarying fertility, within a wall of hills, in most places of less elevation than the two points at either end of the semicircle.

POLITICAL HISTORY.

We possess historical records of the western coast of Asia Minor for a period of about 3,000 years. During this period we meet with several epochs of great material prosperity, but with one only of political independence and free institutions. At the date B.C. 3000, we find the whole of the western coast of Asia Minor, and the islands immediately adjacent, occupied by Greek colonies, and we have reason to believe that they maintained an independent existence for the 500 years following.

Sketch of early history.

The Cyclopiæ walls, still to be seen in this country, testify to the existence of the kindred Pelasgic race, who were in possession of the soil previously to the Greek immigration; but we have no information as to their modes of life or government. The 500 years of independence, from 1064 B.C. to 560 B.C., the era of Cræsus, are marked by the names of Homer and Phææces, of Sappho and Anaxagoras, and the language they spoke has ever since maintained its ground in the country in which they flourished. The trade and commerce of Asia Minor was of great importance even at this early period; the wool manufactures (Milesia *trυφή*), and the luxurious habits of the Ionian merchants (*Ιωνική τρυφή*), are subjects of constant allusion in the classical authors. Cræsus, the King of Lydia, made (B.C. 560) the whole of the Greek

Era of Greek colonies, 500 years.

colonies in Asia Minor his tributaries, realizing thus an object at which his dynasty had been ineffectually aiming for 150 years, and inaugurating for the Asiatic Greek ages of unvarying political subordination under various political masters. It seems that jealousy and want of union amongst themselves was the cause of the subjugation of the Greeks of B.C. 560, as of the Greeks of 1453 A.D. Theognis, the aristocratic exile of Megara, alluding to the fall of these independent Republics, has the following lines:—

*"Υβρις καὶ Μάγνητας ἀπώλεσε καὶ Κολόφωνα
Καὶ Σμύρναν.—Theognis, 1104.*

Ruin under
Cræsus.

For some reason unknown to us, Smyrna was treated with unusual severity, the city was razed to the ground and was not rebuilt till the time of Alexander the Great. Hence it is that, save a passing notice in Herodotus, who mentions the transfer of Smyrna from the Æolian to the Ionian federation, we read nothing about its history in the writings of the great Greek authors.

Revival under
Alexander.

Alexander, however, seeing how advantageous a site for a large city was to be found on the shores of the Gulph of Smyrna, collected together such Greeks as still claimed to be Smyrniotes, though their city had lain waste for 200 years, and founded it anew at a distance of about two miles from the ruins of the ancient town.

The site of the ancient town is marked at present by a paper mill belonging to the Turkish government, and lies considerably to the right of the Meles, whose situation is identified by the words of the oracle which was obtained to sanction the removal, and which bid the Greeks "cross the sacred Meles, and dwell on Mount Pagus." Under the successors of Alexander, Smyrna enjoyed, as we learn from inscriptions on coins and passing notices in contemporary writers, a pre-eminence amongst the cities of Asia, and a high degree of material prosperity. The same remarks will apply to the ages of Roman supremacy, during which Smyrna was celebrated for its schools of science and medicine, for its magnificent buildings and general opulence. It suffered several times during the epoch of the two

empires from earthquakes, which it is said have invariably, in ancient as in modern times, taken place in the month of June. An earthquake, which threw down a large portion of the whole town in 177 A.D., gave Marcus Aurelius an occasion for the display of that munificence which the Roman government so often displayed, and which not improbably contributed somewhat towards inducing the conquered Greeks to adopt the name, *Ρωμαῖοι*, though not the language, of their Italian masters.

Era of Roman empires.

Smyrna was one of the seven churches of Asia to which St. John addressed his warnings, and in the later days of Leon the Wise, it was placed in the position of metropolis to six other bishoprics.

In the year 1084 A.D. began that series of struggles between the Greek and the Turk which, after lasting 335 years, ended in the final establishment of the Turkish supremacy under Sultan Mahomet I., in the year 1419. A Turkish pirate, Tsachas, at the head of a considerable horde of his countrymen, established himself in this part of Asia Minor in the year 1084 A.D., and held his ground against all the forces of the Greek empire for about thirteen years. Though driven out in the year 1097 by John, the brother-in-law of the Emperor Alexius Commenus, he again obtained possession of Smyrna, and, after being expelled from it a second time, he seems at last to have perished by treachery on the part of Alexius and his kinsman, Aslan, the Turkish Sultan.

Turkish hordes attack.

Alexius and his immediate successors, taught by experience, fortified Smyrna and the other towns more immediately exposed by their vicinity to the seaboard, (at that time entirely Greek,) to the attacks of the Turk, who was then, it would appear, more competent than at present to maritime enterprise.

Whilst Constantinople was in the hands of the Latins, A.D. 1202–1261, Smyrna formed part of the Greek Empire of Nice. Under the heroic Theodore Lascaris I. and the statesmanlike John Ducas Vataces (*Βατάτζης*) Asia Minor appears to have enjoyed a season of prosperity and repose, a period of calm and lull preceding the tempest of rapine

and destruction which the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries brought with them.

It was in the thirteenth century that the castle, whose ruins still overlook the Town of Smyrna, and the Palace at Nymphi, the favourite residence of John Vataces, were built, each of which, by their parallel and horizontal rows of flat tiling interposed between stone masonry, shows, did we know it from no other sources, the comparatively recent epoch of its erection. [We may observe, that a totally different style of building is observable in the castle opposite the mouth of the Hermus at the entrance of the bay. This fort is of Turkish construction, and was erected at the times of the Venetian wars, A.D. 1656.]

Era of Turkish
occupation.

In the fourteenth century Asia Minor was parcelled out by different Turkish chieftains into separate principalities, which maintained an independent existence as such until the days of Bajazet, A.D. 1400. The whole of the maritime country from Rhodes to Scutari came at this time finally into the hands of the Turks. A band of Catalans were invited by the Greek Emperor Andronicus, A.D. 1303, to lend their aid towards averting the catastrophe, but the Greeks have left it on record, that they found the friendship of the Catalans more hurtful than the enmity of the Turks. In 1313 Aidin, one of the Turkish emirs, possessed himself of Tralles and Smyrna, and his name is still borne by the former of these two places in one of the fairest valleys in the world. After a reign of twelve years Aidin transmitted the government of his principality to his son Omar. But whilst Omar was absent with his fleet on an expedition in aid of Cantacuzene into the sea of Marmora, the Knights of Rhodes made a descent upon Smyrna and seized the castle on the water's edge, from which all the attempts made by the Turks to dislodge them were ineffectual for a period of fifty-seven years. When we consider that this building is completely commanded by the fort on Mount Pagus, which was in the hands of the Turks, and that it is scarcely elevated at all above the level of the sea, which also was from time to time in the

See pages
104-106.

Held by
Knights of
Rhodes.

power of the enemy, and that enemy under the orders of such Princes as Amurath I., the organiser of the janissaries, and Bajazet, the fortifier of Gallipoli, we are compelled, even after making all allowance for the difference between the artillery of the fourteenth and fifteenth, and that of the nineteenth centuries, to pay no scanty praise to that band of heroes who held such a post for more than half a century.

The Knights of Rhodes, after a fourteen days' seige, A.D. 1402, fell, as their old antagonists the Turks had fallen, under the destroying sword of Tamerlane, who is said to have erected at Smyrna, as elsewhere, a hideous monument of his triumph in the shape of a pyramid of human skulls. Though the Turkish empire might have been thought wounded to death on the field of Angora, owing to the divisions of Western Europe and the imbecility of the Eastern empire, its deadly wound was healed, and in 1424, little more than twenty years after that event, we find the Turks in final possession of Smyrna. With the exception of a threatening demonstration on the part of a Venetian fleet in A.D. 1694, and a few outbreaks on that of the Romaic population at periods of great political excitement, Smyrna has remained exempt from the scourge of war from the times of Amurath II., A.D. 1424, down to those of Abdul Medjid. But though unscathed by war for the last 400 years, Smyrna has within that period suffered severely on two occasions from earthquakes. In 1688 little was left standing in the city, save the castle on Mount Pagus; all the archives and public records were destroyed: and in 1778 the earthquake was accompanied by a fire, which proved itself most destructive. From this latter scourge the city suffered considerably so recently as the year 1845.

It is obvious from this short sketch that no conclusion can be drawn from the present condition of a town which has suffered so much from the destroying influence of the elements and the more desolating injury of man, as to the appearance it presented in its several eras of happiness and prosperity. But from the medals and other antiquities which, Dr. Chandler

Final cession to
Turks A.D.
1424.

says, Smyrna has contributed in greater abundance than any other Greek city, we are justified in inferring that its ancient importance as a commercial emporium and seat of government was not inferior to that which it at present holds.

The advantages of its position have enabled it to rise again and again from its ashes, and nothing can speak so strongly for its admirable situation as its repeated recovery from calamities which were sufficient to destroy finally and for ever its neighbours and rivals Clazomenæ and Ephesus.*

POPULATION.

The population of Smyrna may be estimated as amounting to 150,000 souls. Such was the result come to by the last census, which was taken in 1849, and no material change either for increase or decrease has since been effected in the whole mass of the population. Nearly 100,000 of the inhabitants, *i.e.* two-thirds, are either Greeks or Turks, whose numbers were till lately all but equal, though now the numerical superiority is with the Greeks.

The rest of the population is made up by Armenians, Jews, Roman Catholics, generally of European extraction, and European settlers. There are few other towns in the world with a fixed and resident population consisting of so many distinct and distinguishable elements.

Turkish.

The Turks,

The dominant race numbers about 45,000 souls, this at least was their number when the last census was taken; but poverty and the conscription for the war have since then acted as a check upon the increase of the poorer classes, and the richer classes have suffered a diminution in their numbers, owing to their practice of procuring abortion, a habit to

* Our authorities for the political history of Smyrna have been —(i.) Œconomus: *Αυτοσχέδιος Διατριβή περί Σμύρνης*. Malta 1831. (ii.) The several historians to whom he refers. (iii.) Gibbon's *Roman Empire*, chapters 59, 61, 62, 64.

which the poorer classes are likewise addicted. The rich Turks form but a very small portion of the whole nation, and the sources of their wealth are few. The rich man is either a government employé or a landed proprietor; the Turk of the present day seems in most cases incompetent either to successful manufacture or speculation.

The morality in vogue among Turks in the first of these lines of life has given rise to the proverb common in the East, “ Δόσε τὸν Τοῦρκον χρήματα καὶ τύφλωνε.” “ Bribe the Turk, and blind him.” Turks as officials.

It is more pleasing to contemplate the other principal source of Turkish wealth, the export of raw produce, for which branch of commerce the country is so well fitted, that neither the export duties of the government nor the extortion of its officials have been able materially to diminish it. The staple products are grain (Γεννήματα in the Greek returns), fruits (ὀπωραιοί), wool (μάλλια), and drugs. Details upon these subjects are given elsewhere in this Report, under the head of Commerce, see pp. 73–87, and Appendix, p. 89. Such Turkish capital as is invested in trade we find flowing principally in the following channels:—the manufacture of saddlery and horse trappings, and clothing for domestic use exclusively and of Asiatic pattern; of camel bells, horse shoes and nails, and a few of the coarser productions of hardware, such as locks, chains, &c. and the drums for packing figs. All these trades serve to employ the poorer Turkish population, but are of comparatively little importance to foreign nations, and in this point of view they differ from the carpet trade, a branch of commerce as yet entirely in Turkish hands. Turks as exporters.

The upper class Turks have to a great extent adopted European costumes, though they still retain the fez as a mark of their nationality. The lower orders still wear the turban and the loose breeches, almost as large and flowing as a petticoat, fastened just below the knee. This dress sets off to great advantage the sturdy proportions so commonly to be met with among the Turkish labouring classes, and it contributes also not a little to give dignity to the exterior of their priests and moollahs. The Euro- Turks in trade.

Dress.

peanised Turk seldom appears to advantage in his new dress, though he is diligent in striving to copy his model as exactly as possible. He has, however, borrowed as little of real value from the European civilization which is now in full life around him, as he has done from that whose ruins are to be seen at every turn in the country his sword won for him.

fanners and
abits.

The Turk has unfortunately adopted from the western nations the habit of drunkenness, the only sensual indulgence expressly discountenanced by his religion, and it is somewhat strange that this, a vice especially of colder climates and of more lively races, should to some extent have superseded here the practice of opium eating, a habit more congenial to the dreamy temperaments and burning sky of Asia. The leisure time of the upper classes is not employed in active sports or exercise; they either dream it away by the aid of their chibouque, or spend it in lounging walks and unprofitable visits. The working Turk spends his evenings at houses of entertainment closely analogous to the continental café, where coffee and tobacco furnish him with a solace within easy reach of the poorest.

ages.

His wages have varied from 7 to 8 gr., 14*d.* to 16*d.* per diem, in 1853, to 12 gr., 2*s.* per diem, in 1856; and bread has varied at the same periods from 1*d.* to 1½*d.*, 1¾*d.* per lb., and meat from 4*d.* to 6*d.* per lb. Fish and vegetables of all kinds are so exceedingly cheap here as only to be estimated by the para, a coin equal to one-fifth of a farthing in value, and they are in this country most important articles of diet. A comparison of these several prices would lead one to infer, what an inspection would show, the existence of a well-nourished poor population.

bour, chiefly
ricultural.

It is in agricultural labour of one sort or other almost exclusively that the poor Turk is employed; he is scarcely ever set to perform any operation more complex than that of picking and sorting the raw produce which more skilled labourers will one day elaborate. We will here, however, enumerate the exceptions to this rule, the instances, that is, in which the Turk appears as a manufacturer, however unimportant they may appear.

Many of the poor Turks get their living by the manufacture of the circular drums so familiar to us as fig boxes. For further particulars, see under "Commerce," p. 104, in Appendix.

Also manufacturers, as of fig boxes;

There are in Smyrna many Turks employed as nail and lock manufacturers. The general order of things seems to be here reversed. Bar iron and pig iron are exported from England, and made up into nails and horseshoes in Asia Minor. The means at the disposal of the Turk for working up the raw material are of the very simplest description; such an apparatus as would be thought inadequate by a roadside blacksmith in England, a pair of bellows, a few bricks, an anvil, and a charcoal fire. These forges, such as they are, are not massed together as we find them in Constantinople, but are scattered about in the Turkish quarter, and are generally placed in the yard of a private dwelling-house. A tolerably good lock, of rough construction but of considerable strength, from one of these forges may be bought for 15 piastres = 2s. 6d.

And of nails and locks.

Thirdly, the portering of Smyrna is almost entirely performed by Turks. As this is an employment for which no talent and no capital, save that of a strong body, is required, one would expect to find an excess of candidates for it, and a minimum of remuneration; and, were the porters not protected by their possession of a monopoly, and being formed into a guild, such undoubtedly would be the case. As it is the Smyrna porters pay heavy taxes to the Government, and in return have the monopoly of the conveyance of goods from the sea shore secured to them. They are divided into sections, and each of these is organised under one head, who receives a certain share of the profits, and manages the payment of their taxes to Government. There are 3,000 porters in Smyrna, most, if not all of them, Turks, who come from the interior to Smyrna at the age of from eighteen to twenty, and continue here till they have accumulated a considerable sum of money, after which they withdraw again to their homes. Iconium is the place whence most of them come. They have fixed rates of charges (4 piastres anywhere within the town for one bale of goods), and they do not generally make

And town employment as porters.

any attempt at extorting more than this. The loads they carry are enormous, as much as 300 lbs. being frequently placed upon one of them ; and their physical development is indicative of their great strength, great labour, and temperate life.

Gravestones
worked by
Greeks

We may note in passing, the apparently merely curious but yet not altogether insignificant fact, that the gravestones of the Turks, which are not unfrequently covered with inscriptions in their somewhat complex caligraphy, and consequently demand some skill in their workmanship, are entirely made by Greeks.

Turkish
women.

The same account may be given of the female part of the Turkish population in Smyrna as in other cities of the empire. Infanticide and prostitution are rare, but the Turkish woman, with a view of retaining her hold on her husband's affections, very commonly procures the abortion of her unborn child. A larger proportion of Turkish women than is generally supposed possess the accomplishments of reading and writing, but beyond this degree their education has not advanced.

As manufac-
turers.

See Commerce,
. 85.

The Turkish women make linen and silken textures of various degrees of fineness for the use of their own households, and within their own houses, but the manufacture of the Turkey carpet and the richly embroidered and flowery praying carpet is also almost entirely carried on by female hands. For the construction of these fabrics, and also of others intended for display by the Oriental, and purchased as curiosities by the European, no other machinery than the very simplest is employed.

Religion and
education.

The Turkish empire is in idea a theocracy, or perhaps we should rather say a prophetocracy, and in practice we find that their religious sentiments and beliefs exercise a most decided and tangible influence over the most trivial as well as the most important actions of Mussulmen.

Religious and educational institutions, more or less closely connected in most countries, are in the Turkish mutually independent, and as if by logical sequence no education is thought necessary to be provided publicly for the Turkish woman. Their schools are schools for boys only. These institutions are attached

to the mosques, of which there are eighteen in Smyrna, and which are all more or less richly endowed. The fees for instruction are very small and the scholars are of the lower and middle classes; the richer Turks providing themselves with private instructors. The Imaums are the teachers in the Turkish schools, the Koran and the writings of the commentators upon it are their class books; and, difficult though their language be both to read and write, a very large proportion of the poorer Turks can do both. So much of arithmetic is taught as is necessary for the simple business transactions of the Mussulman population. The cheapness of these schools and the absence of any manufacture where children's labour might be turned to account, explains the comparatively wide diffusion of this somewhat scanty education. Few of the Turkish officials in Smyrna could speak any Western language, one only, Ali Effendi, who held the post of Sanitary Commissioner, could both speak French fluently, and English enough for the common purposes of life. The proportion of wealthy Turks who have received an education in Paris, is much smaller than that of the corresponding class of Greeks. Lastly, there is no Turkish newspaper in Smyrna.

The priests know little beyond the dogmas of their religion, and the influence they possess is trifling, though their wealth is not inconsiderable when estimated by a Turkish standard. Certain revenues designed for the relief of the poor and indigent are attached to the mosques, and of these the priests are the dispensers, but they cannot be said to take any active interest in the objects of this benevolence. Priests.

Such attempts as have been made in Smyrna towards converting Mahomedans have met with no success. A mission was founded in the place by the Church Missionary Society of Great Britain, twenty-four years ago; but at that time a law was in force which assigned the penalty of death to any Mussulman who forsook the faith of his forefathers, and this circumstance co-operated powerfully, with others, towards deterring any one from taking such a step. Books, however, and tracts in the Turkish language have been distributed amongst the Turks, Conversion.

but the most successful field of labour has been found by the missionary to be among the Christian population.

Government of
the Turks.

The consideration of the government of the country will naturally fall under the head of the Turkish population, as that population is the dominant or ruling race, and, till lately, occupied that position almost to the entire exclusion of all others. What follows, however, was written previously to the promulgation of the Hatti Scheriff of February 1856.

Pasha and
Council.

The government of Smyrna is vested in a pasha and his council. For the office of pasha in this, the second city of the Turkish empire, a man of some note has generally been selected, and the present pasha has occupied posts of importance at the courts of Western Europe. Within the last twelve years Smyrna has had no less than six pashas, so short is generally their tenure of office, a fact at which we should not wonder when we think that they often have to contend at once with intrigue from without on the part of the representatives of some European power, and from within on the part of their private enemies, to whom their own misconduct has not unfrequently given a handle.

Tribunals, criminal.

The council associated with the pasha for the administration of justice in civil and criminal cases, consists of a *cadi*, the chief of the police, and the representatives of the several communities of Greeks, Armenians, Jews, and Roman Catholic *Rayas*. The final decision rests with the pasha, who has not, however, the power of life and death. In every instance where a sentence of death is passed it is forwarded to Constantinople for the Sultan's approval, and before it is carried into execution it is necessary that the signature of the chief priest be also affixed to it. These formalities, and especially the latter of them, have frequently tended to defeat the ends of justice; their existence has opened a door for the practice of bribery and the procuring of delay in behalf of notorious criminals, though it may have occasionally prevented the perpetration of a judicial murder. Most of the cases brought before this tribunal are petty, and we may remark that there are no female prisoners to be seen in their prisons.

There is another council for mercantile cases. This council awards the punishments in cases of fraudulent bankruptcy and other varieties of dishonest dealing. The punishment consists in imprisonment for a longer or shorter period, and it is to be remarked that after the expiration of the term of his sentence the debtor is still held to be liable for the amount of the debt he has incurred. Mercantile.

Imprisonment is the punishment awarded to every variety of crime, except to such cases as, by their flagrant character, or by their affecting some individual under European protection, compel the authorities to inflict capital punishment. Punishments.

Criminals condemned to death are decapitated, and this punishment is, if possible, inflicted near the place where the offence was committed. If the offender be a Greek it is sometimes found necessary to execute him by night for fear of an outbreak on the part of his countrymen.

There are two places for the imprisonment of criminals, exclusive of those attached to the several consulates for the confinement of offenders under their protection. One, the Turkish, is in the pasha's residence, and was formerly the only establishment of the kind in existence in Smyrna. It consists of three or four small rooms, and is used for the confinement of offenders before they are tried, for the punishment of debtors, and of petty criminals. There is no arrangement apparently for separating criminals guilty of one order of crime from those guilty of another, but it is seen that the richer offenders generally contrive to obtain either complete privacy or the company of men of their own rank in life. The second prison is on a more extensive scale, and can contain 100 prisoners. It was formerly a khan, and when the want of increased prison accommodation made itself felt, the strong doors and walls of that kind of building made its conversion to that use easy and obvious; most of the prisoners here are homicides of one sort or another, and by nationality Greeks. Prisons.

In some cases the sentence of death has been awarded, but has been commuted, as the Turkish law allows for a five years' imprisonment on the payment of a certain sum of money to the murdered man's See Commerce, p. 84.

Punishments.

family or friends. Political offenders are also confined here, and we saw one large and tolerably comfortable room allotted to three Mussulmen, wearing however heavy chains, who had organized a rising of some thousand men at Aidin, in the interior. A certain ration of bread is allowed each prisoner from the Government, and, with the exception of spirits, they are permitted to purchase anything they please. The poorer prisoners provide themselves with bags, which they let down from their windows to receive such charity as the passers by may bestow upon them. Sentences are awarded and carried into execution in a manner that leaves much to be desired. As regards the carrying of a sentence into execution, it is often found that a prisoner who has wealthy friends has disappeared in an unaccountable manner, and has resumed his old practices in a new field. And it is impossible wholly to discredit the stories in every one's mouth, which go to show that money has nearly as great an influence with witnesses and judges previously, as with the jailors subsequently to the passing of a sentence.

Greek.

At least one-third of the inhabitants of Smyrna are Greeks by blood, language, and religion; their numbers may be estimated as amounting to 50,000, thus exceeding slightly those of the Turkish population; and the events which have occurred within the last two years will be found to have increased their relative majority. Several considerations induce us to consider the Greek of Smyrna as a genuine representative and descendant of the ancient Hellene. First, the creations of ancient Greek art are strikingly reproduced in the living Greek. The characteristic bearing and expression of the old models are constantly brought before our minds as we meet the modern Greek in the streets. A most striking illustration of our meaning is furnished by a comparison of the Ulysses of the ancient artists with the seafaring Greek of the present day. But not only do we trace a correspondence between the tout ensemble of the sculptured marble and the general expression of the living individual, but we also

Greeks.
Numbers.

Identity with
old Greek
race.

Three argu-
ments.

observe a close resemblance in the details of limb and feature in the two subjects of comparison. It is sufficient to specify the lips, nose, eyes, hair, and forehead as points of coincidence.

Secondly, Romaic has always been the language of the Asiatic Greek, even when Albanian was spoken in Athens, and *πᾶσα ἡ Ἑλλὰς ἐσκλαβώθη*.

Thirdly, The Greek of modern Hellas will allow that his race has suffered less from the intermixture of foreign blood in Asia Minor than in Greece Proper itself. We append his own words:—

“Κατὰ τὸν Μεσαιῶνα καὶ μετέπειτα ἡ Ἑλληνικὴ φύλη ἐφυλάχθη μᾶλλον ἄμικτος ἐν τῇ Μικρασίᾳ καὶ ταῖς νήσοις ἢ ἐν Πελοποννήσῳ.”*
From a work published at Syra, 1855, entitled *Πανελληνίς*, p. 138.

Of the 50,000 Smyrniote Greeks, the great majority are subjects of the Porte, and are now to be governed according to the provisions laid down by the Hatti Scheriff of 1856. A few are Greek subjects, and are governed by Greek law; whilst from 2,000 to 3,000 are British subjects, and are under the jurisdiction of the British consul, and are governed by Ionian law.

Raya, and protected.

The Smyrniote Greek has regular features of the classical model, a stature above middle height, and an expression of vivacity and restlessness in his countenance contrasting strongly with the acquiescent somnolence of the Asiatic races surrounding him. The upper classes have universally adopted the European dress, but the labouring population have a costume peculiar to themselves, they wear large and very loose breeches of blue calico fastening below the knee, and serving thus as a means for supporting the stocking. The fustanella, or multi-fold petticoat of the Albanian is not worn by the Anatolian Greek, though it is becoming the national dress of the Hellenic. A Guernsey shirt and sailor's blue jacket, with shoes and stockings, sometimes complete their dress. But the Greek who is a little above the very poorest class, wears generally a white shirt, and over it a braided waistcoat in addition to the jacket. All Greeks who have not adopted

Appearance.

* In the Middle Ages and subsequently, the Greek race kept itself more free from intermixture with other races in Asia Minor and the islands than in the Peloponnesus.

the European costume were a distinctive fez. This fez is taller than that worn by the Turks, and more nearly resembles what is known in works of ancient art as the Phrygian bonnet, but it differs from it too, in not being pointed at the extremity, and in having a long silken tassel appended. The colour of the fez itself is red, and to obtain this colour cochineal is largely imported from England and from Greece. As a whole, this dress is both sensible and becoming.

In every occupation and profession the Greek is to be found. There are Greek merchants, Greek lawyers, Greek doctors, each in the very highest walks of his calling.

Greek mer-
chants.

The business of exporting and importing goods to and from Europe is becoming more and more monopolised by the Greek merchants day by day. They are compelled by the conditions of the insurance companies to employ European bottoms and sailors to transport their freight, and they have a line of English steamers in their employment, several of them reaching a tonnage of 1,200 tons, and numbering already five or six vessels named after the several countries of ancient Hellas, the "Arcadia," the "Laconia," &c. It is in great measure their local knowledge and connexions which enable them to compete with merchants of other nations at so great an advantage in this particular branch of business. There are many instances to be pointed out in Smyrna of Greek merchants who have raised themselves by their own exertions and industry from a very poor condition to one of opulence, and on the other hand it is said that their very wealthiest merchants are in the habit of furthering their own interests by methods which, though not positively dishonest, are yet such as none but the pettiest tradesman of another race would condescend to employ. The charge, however, of positive dishonesty is one very frequently brought against the Greek merchant, and to a certain extent our own investigations and experience have satisfied us of the truth of it.

Commercial
character of
Greeks.

It is not a little remarkable that in the rules for the election of a managing committee for the Greek College, a special proviso exists declaring the ineligi-

bility of fraudulent bankrupts for the office. That such a rule should be necessary shows two things:—

I. The frequency of the offence.

II. The scanty amount of public reprobation awarded to it.

The Greek physicians and lawyers receive their professional education in the schools of continental Europe, and especially in those of Paris and Athens. We have found the younger Greek members of the medical profession in Smyrna quite on a level with the theory and practice of the present day, and though no restriction or regulation exists as to the indispensability to the practitioner of a diploma from some respectable source, considerable regard is paid by the public to the possession of proper qualifications. The largest income made by any practitioner in Smyrna is made by a Greek physician, and amounts to 1,500*l.* per annum. The fee for each visit is 15 piastres = 2*s.* 6*d.*, but we believe it is usual for the Smyrniote practitioner to make several visits where one would be held amply sufficient in Europe. As a standard of comparison, we may mention that the head master (Διευθυντής) of the large school in Smyrna in which the Greek professional man receives his non-professional education has a salary of 2,000 (grosia) piastres per month, *i.e.*, a little under 200*l.* per annum.

Greek physicians.

The Greek is to be found in all the employments of humble life, whether as a small tradesman, artisan, boatman, or day labourer. The profits of the small tradesman cannot easily be estimated, but in several instances we have found the master of a shop of very humble pretensions to be the owner and occupier of a house in some other part of the town, the rent of which in Smyrna would have been 35*l.* to 40*l.* per annum. The wages paid to day labourers during the time that we were in Smyrna varied from 8 piastres = 16*d.*, up to 12 piastres = 2*s.* per diem. Previously to the war 7 piastres = 14*d.*, was the amount usually paid. The condition of the labouring population was at this time one of well-being, as the price of bread was 2 piastres per oke = 4*d.* for 2½ lbs., and a whole sheep might be purchased for 80 piastres,

Trades and workpeople.

i.e., about 13s. Indeed, squalid visages and ragged clothes are seldom, if ever, to be seen among the Greek population.

Mental state of
poor.

As regards the intellectual condition of the lower class Greek, he is to be considered as intelligent and tolerably well informed; as regards his moral character, he is distinguished by his desire to better his condition and rise in the world, while, on the other hand, his aspirations are frequently counteracted by his own turbulence and volatility. Drunkenness prevails to a considerable extent amongst this class of the population; and this vice is encouraged by the great cheapness of intoxicating drinks, wine ranging from 4 to 5 piastres per oke, *i.e.*, 8*d.* to 10*d.* for as much as will fill two English quart bottles, and raki, a strong spirit, selling at from 1*s.* to 14*d.* for the same quantity. Much time is spent in drinking and smoking in cafés by the lower orders; and though these establishments are closed comparatively early in the evening, they are, while open, invariably crowded. Their walls are almost invariably hung thickly with prints of scenes and heroes of the Greek war of independence; and we may here pass by an easy transition to the consideration of that enmity to everything Turkish which is so universally found in all classes of Greeks, and so deeply imbedded in each individual heart as to be rightly viewed as constituting a part of the moral nature of the entire race. The passing traveller in Turkey cannot fail to become acquainted with the existence of this bitter feeling, and from what he sees of the easy going, uninterfering régime of the Turks, he is often puzzled how to account for it. Much of this hatred is to be ascribed to the comparatively recent occurrences of the war of independence, when the vilest passions and the vilest characters had freedom and abundant opportunity for the perpetration of every kind of cruelty, but much also is due to other causes.

Hatred to Turk:
three causes.

Reminis-
cences of War
of Independ-
ence.

Extortion on
part of Turk.

Every one who has formed even a passing acquaintance with a Greek will have had several stories of wrong and extortion which he has suffered at the hands of the Turk related to him. Should this acquaintance ripen into confidence, the Greek will

communicate how the Turk has been induced in many instances to commute a system of irregular and occasional exaction for one of organized and regular receiving of bribes. This plan was carried out to perfection, and on the grand scale, in Chios previous to the massacre. At the present time, when the eyes of Europe are turned towards Turkey and along the seaboard, where the protection or mediation of an European consul is easily procurable, instances of extortion are not now so exceedingly common as they are said to be, but a day's journey into the interior will still furnish the inquirer with numerous and well-authenticated cases.

But there is a third cause, besides these two, which has operated more powerfully than both of them combined to imbue the whole Greek nature with the principle of hatred to the Turk. This cause is the insolence of the Turk in the daily transactions of common life, and his proneness to inflict personal outrage. Much exaggeration would naturally find place in the relation of cases of this kind, but the general truth of the assertion is unassailable. A Greek in the distinctive dress of his race could never enter the Turkish quarter of the town in which he lived without running great risk of suffering personal violence; and even in other parts of the town it was not unusual, until the time of the occupation of Turkey by the Allies, for a Greek to be saluted with the appellation "Giaour," and a blow at the same instant from an uneducated fanatical Turk; and to find on appealing for redress to one of the higher class of the same race that none was to be had. In numberless other ways the Turk has been wont to remind the Raya of his subordinate position by methods which, while they envenomed and alienated the feelings of his subject for ever, served to gratify his own splenetic impulse only for an instant. Distinctions and restrictions as to dress and other externals seem trifling and easy to bear only to those who are not subjected to them. The existence of this evil, as well as of the other evil of oppression and extortion, is recognized and condemned in the Decree of February 18, 1856, by which the Turk

iii. Personal
insolence of
Turk.

has publicly declared, what was already widely known, that when left to himself neither justice induces him to respect the rights nor policy the feelings of his subjects.

Intensity of
hatred to
Turks.

But whatever the causes which may have engendered it, there exists in the Greek towards the Turk a feeling of hatred and bitterness, the very physical expression of which on the countenance of its possessor it is painful to contemplate. It is common alike to young and old, to both sexes, and all ranks.

Dislike of
Roman Ca-
tholics.

A strong feeling of dislike and distrust exists between the Greek and the Roman Catholic population, which is fostered by the priests of either persuasion, and embittered by the difference of the two religious systems. The Greeks accuse the Roman Catholics of having joined with the Turks in the barbarous massacre of Chios; and, whether this be true or false, there is no doubt that on numerous occasions the Roman Catholic population has somewhat ostentatiously put itself in opposition to the interests of the Greek. At the present moment the Greek dislike for Rome is not wholly unmingled with fear, as great exertions are being made throughout the Levant at the present juncture by Roman Catholic emissaries of several orders, who are acting under the sanction and with the patronage of the French Government, and have at all events succeeded in causing great suspicion to attach itself to the intentions of what the Greeks call *ἡ φιλόθησκος πολιτική*.—
See p. 47.

Russian sym-
pathies.

The attachment of the Greek to the Russian interest has been somewhat exaggerated. It has at all times been pronounced rather on its negative than on its positive side; it has been rather a community of enmity to the Turk than a complete union of feelings and interests, the "*idem nolle*" without the "*idem velle*" necessary to make up a "*firma amicitia*."

The upper class Greek, who is not much influenced by the priests, looked to Russia with the hope that by her means the Turkish Empire would be brought to an end; but he always felt and ex-

pressed a firm determination never to live under such a system of despotism as the Czar's. The lower class Greek, on the other hand, is considerably under the influence of the priest, and these individuals again are firmly attached to Russia through fear and jealousy of the rival Catholic Church, and have, in consequence, instilled into their flock attachment to their co-religionists (ὁμόθρησκοι) as one of their first duties. The Greeks, however, whatever aspirations they made for the success of the Russian arms while the event was yet doubtful, had always a shrewd suspicion that under another form of government they might be forced to curb somewhat their vamping and volatile tempers; and, when free from the maddening influence of fanaticism and raki, they were not slow to confess the distrust they felt for their future friends.

The better educated Greeks are in the habit of expressing great admiration for the political institutions of England, with the working of which, travel in England has familiarized many of them. Amongst all classes the English have a reputation for truthfulness and straightforward dealing, and though slow to follow the example, the Greek is not slow to respect the character. An act of brigandage on the part of a Greek band had for its object, in June 1855, an English medical practitioner, resident permanently in Smyrna. Though the matter seemed to wear another aspect at the time, several reasons conspire to make us believe that an Englishman was selected then principally because it was thought that under the circumstances he would fetch a better ransom than an individual of any other nation. Fanatical and political reasons may have exercised influence over the making of the selection; but it is well known that the same band had been in the habit of pillaging persons of every variety of faith and politics indiscriminately.

Feeling toward
the English.

To a certain extent, the political aspirations of the Greek are at one with those of the Roman Catholic and the Armenian; all alike feel the evils of living under a weak government, and all alike desire a government capable of enforcing order, and ensuring

Political aspi-
rations.

justice and security to its subjects. So that this end be attained the Roman Catholic and Armenian are to a great extent careless under whose government it be brought about. It is not so with the Greek. An element of nationality enters into all his calculations. In his day dream of the future he reverts to the past, and sighs for the days when the Turk reigned in the inland city of Iconium, and the whole of the seaboard of the Archipelago and Asia Minor belonged to the Greek emperor in Byzantium. The daily increasing monied and numerical majority of his race in the seaport towns of the Levant makes his hopes appear not wholly chimerical, but it is to be feared that his political education is not yet sufficiently advanced to allow of his assuming and retaining such a position to his own credit and the lasting advantage of the general commonwealth of nations.

The Greeks in Smyrna have for the management and support of their own institutions, such as their schools, hospitals, &c., formed themselves into a municipal body called the Γραικική κοινότης,—the Greek community,—to the common fund of which every Greek is obliged to contribute according to his means.

Education.
The Greek
college.

No educational institution in Smyrna bears the name of university (Πανεπιστήμιον). The aim of its large school (called Εὐαγγελικὴ σχολή.) is expressly stated in its own programme to be the preparation of its pupils for the university. But a view of the curriculum of study pursued at the Greek college in Smyrna will show, that in communicating liberal as opposed to special, general as opposed to professional instruction, it more nearly approaches our notion of university than the universities of Athens and Syra themselves, whose especial aim it is to qualify men for the *exercise* of the three learned professions. From this programme, as given on the next page, we see that though no attempt is made at communicating the special knowledge, or at giving the special preparation necessary for the practice of any one profession, the course of study here prescribed contains every one of the branches of a liberal education—mathematics, language, history, and moral and

Course of study
at the college.

Programme of the Seven Years Curriculum in the "Evangelical School" of Smyrna.

i. Year. 1st Class in "Hellenic School."	{ i. Practical arithmetic up to fractions. ii. Greek grammar. Etymology up to irregular verbs. iii. First volume of a book called "Elementary lessons in Greek :"—Contents, Grammatical Exercises; Æsop's Fables; Sayings of the Wise Men. iv. Ancient history in epitome. v. Sacred history of Old Testament. vi. Exercises written. vii. Writing. viii. Drawing.
ii. Year. 2nd Class in "Hellenic School."	{ i. Practical arithmetic to the end. ii. Greek grammar, etymology, irregular verbs. Derivation and compound words. iii. Second volume of "Elementary lessons :"—Contents, Plutarch's Lives, Xenophon's Hellenics, and Thucydides. iv. Epitome of Mediæval history. v. Political geography. vi. New Testament history. vii. Exercises. viii. Writing. ix. Drawing.
iii. Year. 3rd Class in "Hellenic School."	{ i. Practical geometry. ii. Greek grammar. Syntax. iii. Third volume of "Elementary lessons in Greek :"—Contents, Xenophon's Memorabilia; Plato's Crito; certain passages from his other dialogues; Plutarch's Ethics. iv. Elements of French. v. Political geography to the end. vi. Epitome of modern history. vii. Grecian history. viii. Sacred instruction. ix. Exercises. x. Drawing.
iv. Year. 1st Class in the "Gymnasium."	{ i. Theoretical arithmetic. ii. Greek syntax. Construction and idioms. iii. Isocrates, with the speeches of Lysias and Demosthenes, especially the Philippics and Olynthiacs, with reading aloud. iv. French. v. Natural history of man. vi. Mathematical and physical geography. vii. Ancient history not epitomised. viii. Sacred instruction up to end. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
v. Year. 2nd Class in the "Gymnasium."	{ i. Conclusion of arithmetic and algebra. ii. Syntax—second part. iii. Ancient Greek. Demosthenes De Coronâ. Speeches of Thucydides. Muses of Herodotus, with reading aloud. Specialties of Ionic dialect. iv. Composition. v. French. vi. Physics. vii. History of Middle Ages—not in epitome. viii. Church history. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
vi. Year. Lower 6th Class in "Gymnasium."	{ i. Algebra to end, and geometry. ii. Metrical instruction, as in heroics, &c. iii. Ancient Greek :—Homer's Iliad and Odyssey; Theocritus, Idylls and Epigrams, with vivâ voce reading. Specialties of Doric dialect. iv. Composition. v. French. vi. Psychology. vii. Roman history. viii. Ecclesiastical history. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.
vii. Year. Upper 6th Class in "Gymnasium."	{ i. Geometry up to end. ii. Metrical instruction: Iambic metre, &c. iii. Ancient Greek tragedies of Æschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; one or two odes of Pindar; remains of Alcæus, Sappho: reading aloud. Specialties of the Æolic dialect. iv. French. v. Modern history in extenso. vi. Epitome of logic. vii. Ὁδηγητικὴ ἢ Προπαι- δευτικὴ. viii. Christian ethics. ix. Exercises. x. Latin.

physical science. The course extends over seven years, and no pupil is admitted until he can read and write correctly from dictation, and work sums in the first four rules of arithmetic. The school has two divisions: the upper division is called the "Gymnasium," and is intended for pupils in the last four years of their course; the lower is called the "Hellenic School," and corresponds with the first three years of study. The whole school collectively is called the "Evangelical School" of Smyrna. With the exception of a registration fee of two francs for the lower and four for the upper school, the education is gratuitous. The institution is supported partly by the endowments it possesses in the shape of houses and landed property, partly by an annual allowance from the above-mentioned common fund of the Greek community. The head master ($\Delta\iota\epsilon\upsilon\theta\acute{\upsilon}\nu\omicron\upsilon\tau\eta\varsigma$) receives a salary of 2,000 piastres per month, *i.e.* nearly 200*l.* per annum. The two masters next in rank to him are required to possess certificates, from the Gymnasia in the kingdom of Greece, of having passed through the entire course of study there and the final examinations. In all there are seven masters, and a general rule forbids them to take any of the scholars as their private pupils; the number of pupils is upwards of 250. There is a good library in connexion with the school, which is provided with all the Greek newspapers and periodicals, and is at all times open to the stranger either to inspect or use. Considerable prominence is given, as a reference to the programme will show, to the study of the ancient Greek writers, and this, in combination with other causes, is rapidly bringing back the spoken language to the purity of the ancient standard. The best modern editions of the old authors are used in the school, and a considerable demand exists for them, as the booksellers' shops will show. It is right to add that owing to the general interest felt for and the eagerness to obtain education prevalent among the Greek population, this institution is in a creditable state of efficiency, and may bear a comparison with analogous establishments in other countries. It is under the protection of the British Government, and Her Britannic Majesty's

consul is the ultimate referee in all disputes which may arise.

Within the same walls as the Greek college and the richly endowed church of St. Photeina, with which all these institutions are connected, there are several other schools of more humble pretensions. There is a girls' school and two infants' schools, all of which are in good working order. In all there are within the precincts upwards of 1,000 scholars of one age or another receiving gratuitous instruction. Other schools

There is an infant school for boys attached to the church of St. John, in which there are 150 pupils of the age of from 5 to 12. The education here also is gratuitous, and the revenues of the school are furnished from those of the church of St. Photeina. The black-board and chalk is in use there as elsewhere pretty universally in Greek schools. The *Ἑλληνικὸν σχολεῖον* attached to the church of St. John was shut up when we visited the place; the necessity for it having been superseded by the Evangelical school. The girls' school in the precincts of St. John's Church had from 72 to 100 pupils at the times of our visits; they were mostly under the age of 14. The mistress received 300 piastres per month, 20*l.* per annum, from the revenues of St. Photeina.

There is another school for boys within the walls of the Greek hospital. All these schools are open to all classes. Many of the daughters of the richer Greeks go to a school kept by some Prussian lay sisters, whose instructions are of great value, and who educate many of the upper classes of the various nations in Smyrna. As a general rule the Greek lady is tolerably well informed, and can converse with spirit and intelligence upon many topics, but almost invariably she is animated and interesting when the prospects or past history of her nation are made the subject of discussion.

Though many of the villagers can neither read nor write, it is rare to find a Greek born in Smyrna destitute of these accomplishments.

It is common to see an announcement in the Greek newspapers, to the effect that such and such a Greek merchant or lady resident in London, Marseilles, or

Manchester, has left or presented so many thousand pounds to this or that school. The Greek of the present day emulates the munificence so largely displayed towards educational institutions by the Turk in his early days of greatness.

Greek news-
papers.

Newspapers.

Of the educational development of the middle class of any population, the character of their favourite journals may be taken as a tolerably good indication. Of the four newspapers published in Smyrna, three are Greek, and one French. Of the three Greek, one, the "Amalthea," is a journal of considerable pretensions; the other two, the "Star of the East" and the "Prometheus," the latter only recently set on foot, are inferior in size, execution, and respectability. They are all weekly papers, but the "Amalthea" generally publishes a supplement on some intermediate day, giving any fresh intelligence which may have arrived. It is of the same size as most of the Parisian daily papers, and as literary compositions and as political essays, its leaders are much more nearly on a level with those of the French papers than these are with those of their contemporaries in London. The first page is generally nearly entirely filled with leading articles alone. The paper devotes a large portion of its space to long extracts from the different European journals to which we frequently find the titles, 'Ο Χρόνος, or ὁ Ἑσθίνος Ταχυδρόμος, for the English; ὁ Μηνύτωρ, or ἡ Ἐφημερίς τῶν Συζητησεῶν, for the French; and ἡ Ἀρκτος and ἡ Ἀνεξαρτησία Βελγική, for the Belgian newspapers. It has its own correspondents in the Levantine towns, but for other news it depends upon foreign journals. It always furnishes a very complete summary of the news of the week, and in this, as in every other particular, is far superior to any other paper published in Turkey. Every number of the "Amalthea" contains the commercial intelligence of the week, and also advertisements of certain English quack medicines; considerable, though not entire, liberty of the press is allowed. The price of the paper varies from 2 piastres (4*d.*) without, to 3 piastres (6*d.*) with a supplement. We have given extracts from this paper in the Appendix, p. 111-119, which will at once illustrate the character of the

journal, and afford information on several topics of interest in the East.

We shall estimate still higher the intellectual activity of the Smyrniote Greek, if we take into our consideration the number of Greek books which are imported into Smyrna from Syra and Athens, as well as those which are printed in Smyrna itself. Of this latter class many are volumes of original poems or plays, or translations from the French or other novelists; the former furnishes us with specimens of books of every class, and on every subject. There are several founts of Greek type in Smyrna, and amongst them there is one which may vie for clearness and beauty with the founts of Leipsic, Zurich, or Oxford. Books.

There is a large club belonging to the Greek community, which is called the Greek casino, or Γραικική λέσχη, but which exactly corresponds in purpose and intention to the English "club." It has a fine suite of rooms, and is much frequented throughout the winter months. Greek club.

There are six Greek churches in Smyrna, and an archbishop and bishop. The priests have considerable influence over the lower classes, who are tolerably scrupulous in the performance of what they hold to be their religious duties. The Greek hierarchy does much to foster the feelings of dislike which their flock entertains towards the Turk and the Roman Catholic, but their influence does not extend to the better educated portion of the population, nor their exertions to any attempt at really elevating the religious feelings of the lower orders. There are many scandalous instances of immorality to be found amongst the Greek clergy, and as a body it is exceedingly illiterate and ignorant. Churches.
Hierarchy.

The Greek calendar contains a great number of saints' days, and all of them are kept as holidays. As their calendar does not correspond with that of the Roman Catholics, who also have many feast days, and observe them as such, suspension of business, more or less complete, for the purposes of recreation, is more common in Smyrna than perhaps in any other town in the world. Saints' days.

Their churches, as buildings, have an unimposing exterior, but their interior is covered with offerings and resplendent with gold and silver gilding. They contain numerous pictures of the Trinity, of the Virgin and the Saints, especially St. George; but no images nor any musical instruments.

A considerable number of Greeks belong to the Roman Catholic, but scarcely any to the Protestant Church.

Jewish.

Numbers.

There is a numerous colony of Jews in Smyrna, as many, it is not improbable, though uncertain, as 17,000; and, owing to the comparative liberty and immunity from oppression which they here enjoy, their numbers are rapidly increasing. The Smyrniote Jew is easily distinguishable from the other races with which he is here intermingled, his personal appearance being most marked, though it is different from that with which we are familiar in his brethren in England. He is generally tall, almost always fair-haired, with light and frequently blue eyes, a straight nose, and an effeminately white skin. The expression in his countenance, though not suggestive of oppression, yet denotes acquiescence in subordination; he seems to have bowed his shoulder to bear, and his mind to the adoption of slavish thoughts and artifices. Jews are to be seen in every town in the Mediterranean, and it is worthy of remark, that though they differ very much in physical development, as their Polish, Italian, or Spanish origin would lead us to anticipate, their physiognomical expression is everywhere the same. The Jew in Jerusalem is a Polish Jew; he is short of stature, and wears long curls of black hair, forming thus a very complete contrast to the Smyrniote Jew; yet so truly identical is the expression on the countenances of the two representatives of the race, that a stranger, familiar only with the Smyrniote variety, would on entering Jerusalem instantly recognize the nationality of the first Jew he met. The same remarks may be applied to the cases of the Jews of Egypt and Morocco. The identity extends, however, deeper than the expression of coun-

Appearance.

Expression.

tenance; the moral character and hygienic condition of the Jew is the same in all the different parts of the Levant. The vilest trades and the filthiest portions of each town are always in the hands of Jews. They are as prone to deceit and fraud as the most deceitful of other nations, but they lack their enterprise and fail of attaining their success. There are in Smyrna few wealthy Jews; the rich Jews are not very rich, whilst the poor are very poor. The condition of the poorer Jews in Smyrna is more abject than that of the poor of any other nationality residing here; their dwellings are more crowded, their streets more dirty, and their diet worse. Yet in Smyrna considerable indemnities have been secured to the Jew by certain firmans granted him when he was driven out of Spain by the persecution of the Inquisition. He is not molested by the Turk, and is on the same footing, as regards taxation, with the dominant race. But whatever insults the Greek receives at the hand of the Turk are transmitted by him to the Jew, and at seasons of religious excitement, such as the Greek Easter, it is unsafe for a Jew to be seen near the Greek quarter.

Character.

Poverty.

Their means for education are small; they possess here a few wretched schools, and it is our experience that the proportion of Turkish women who can read and write is larger than that of the Jewish. Their wants in this respect are so great throughout the Levant as to have attracted the attention of their wealthier brethren in Europe, and within the present year, 1856, we have met with Jewish agents travelling with the view of inspecting and reporting upon the condition of their schools in the East.

Educational deficiency.

They speak among themselves a mixture of Turkish and Spanish. Many, however, of the Jews act as brokers to the English merchant vessels which enter this port, and they speak English more fluently and with a better accent than any other race of foreigners in the Levant.

They have not adopted European costumes to any great extent, and they possess here absolutely no political consideration or influence.