

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 62

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ARMENIA
AND
KURDISTAN

LONDON:
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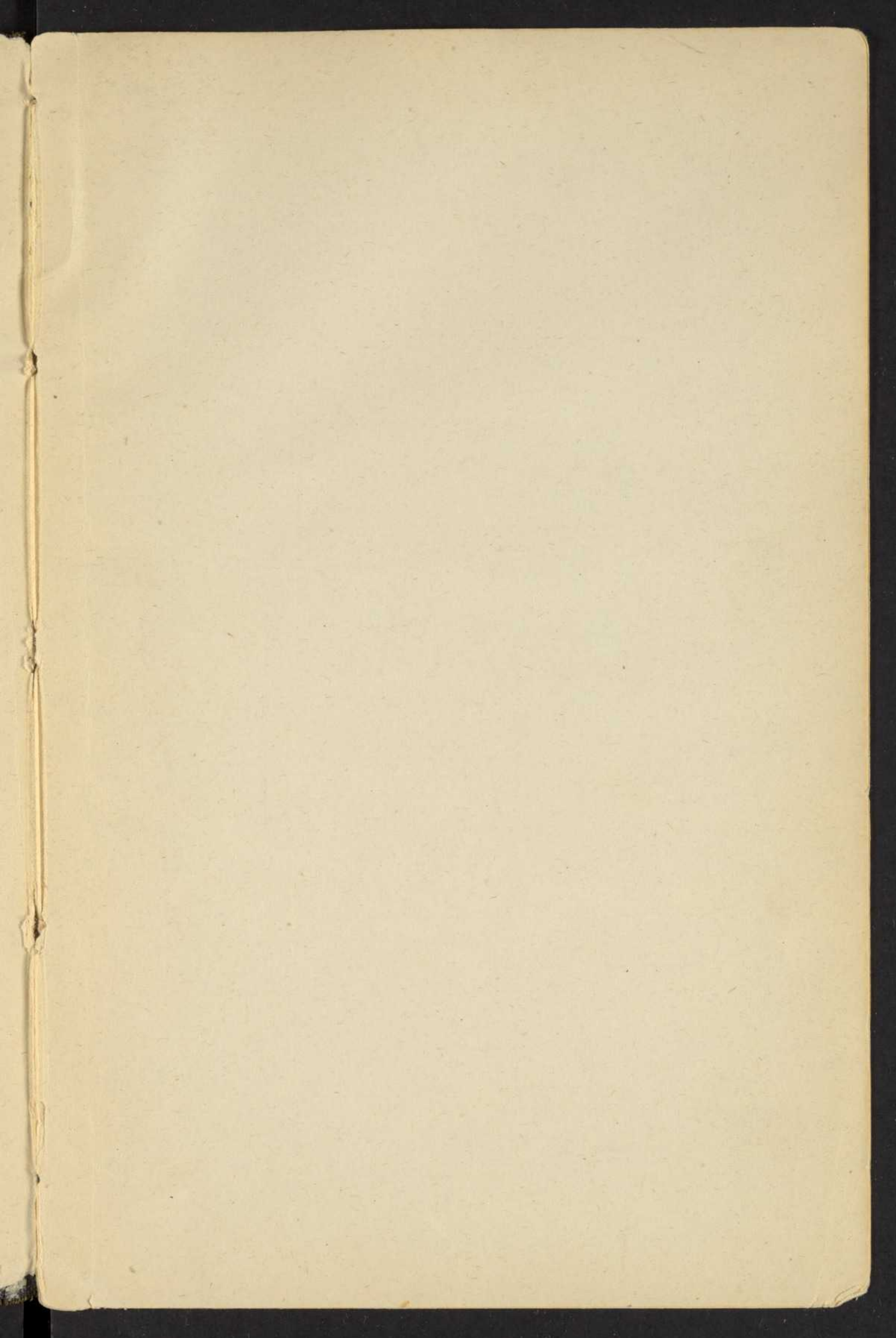
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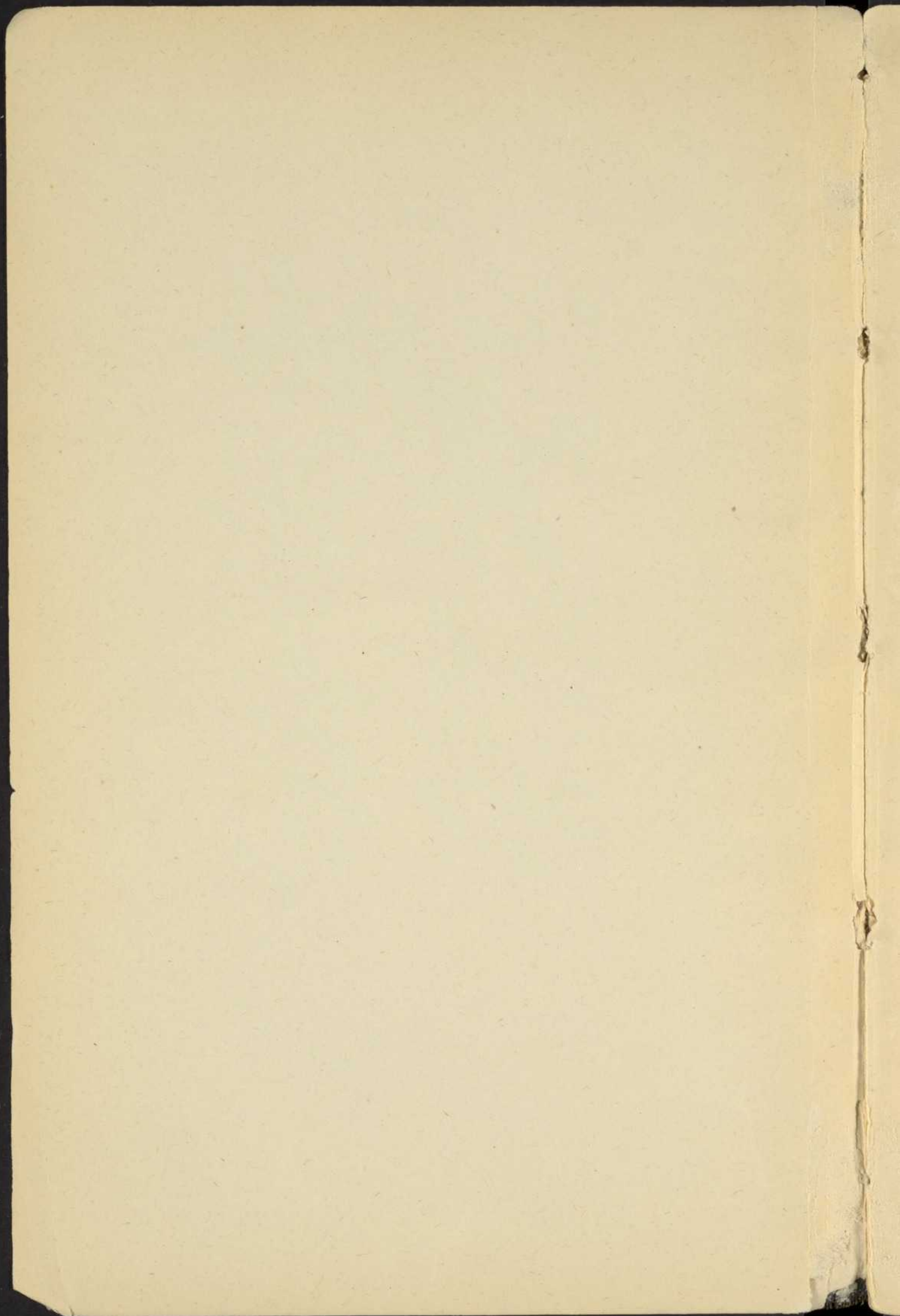


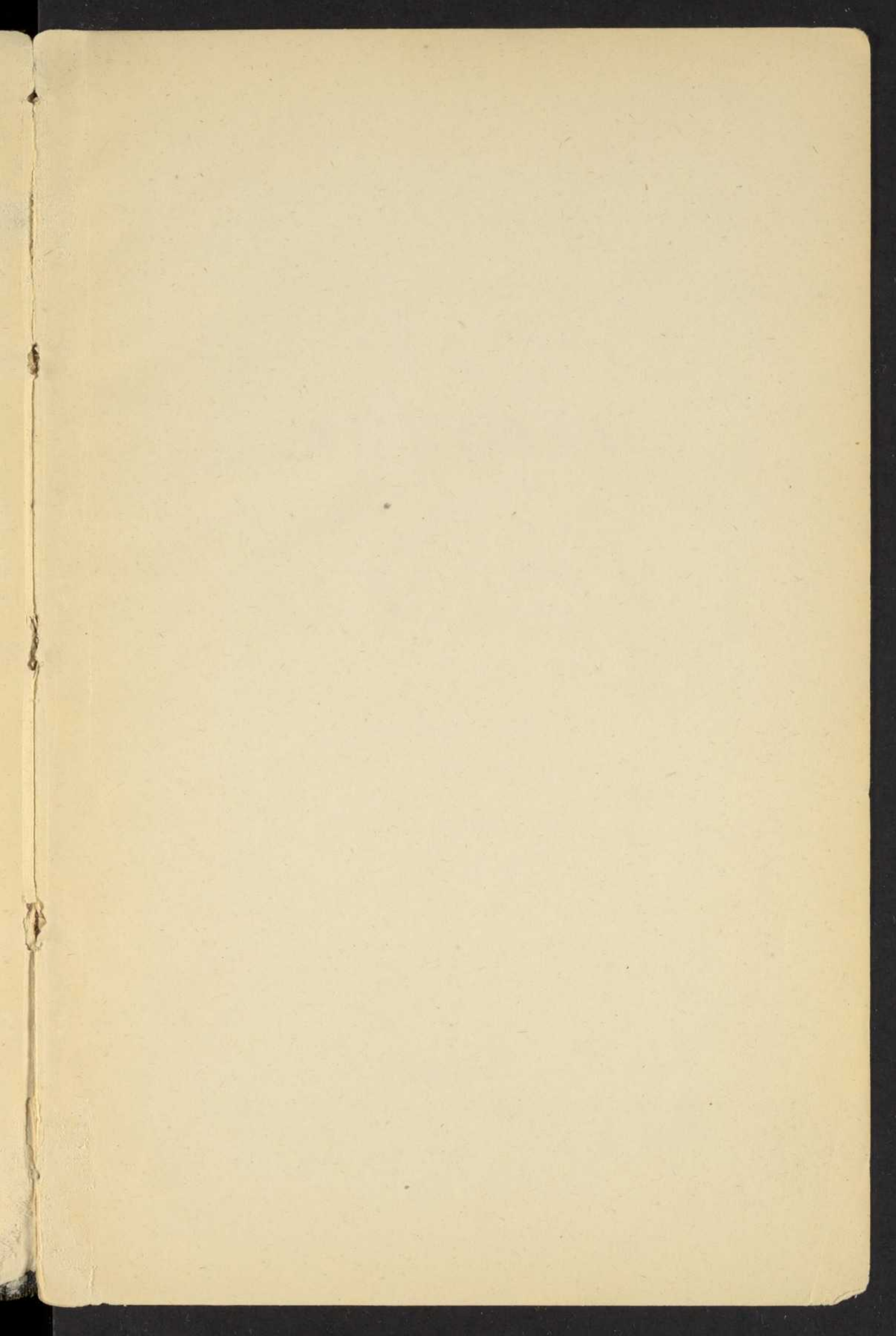


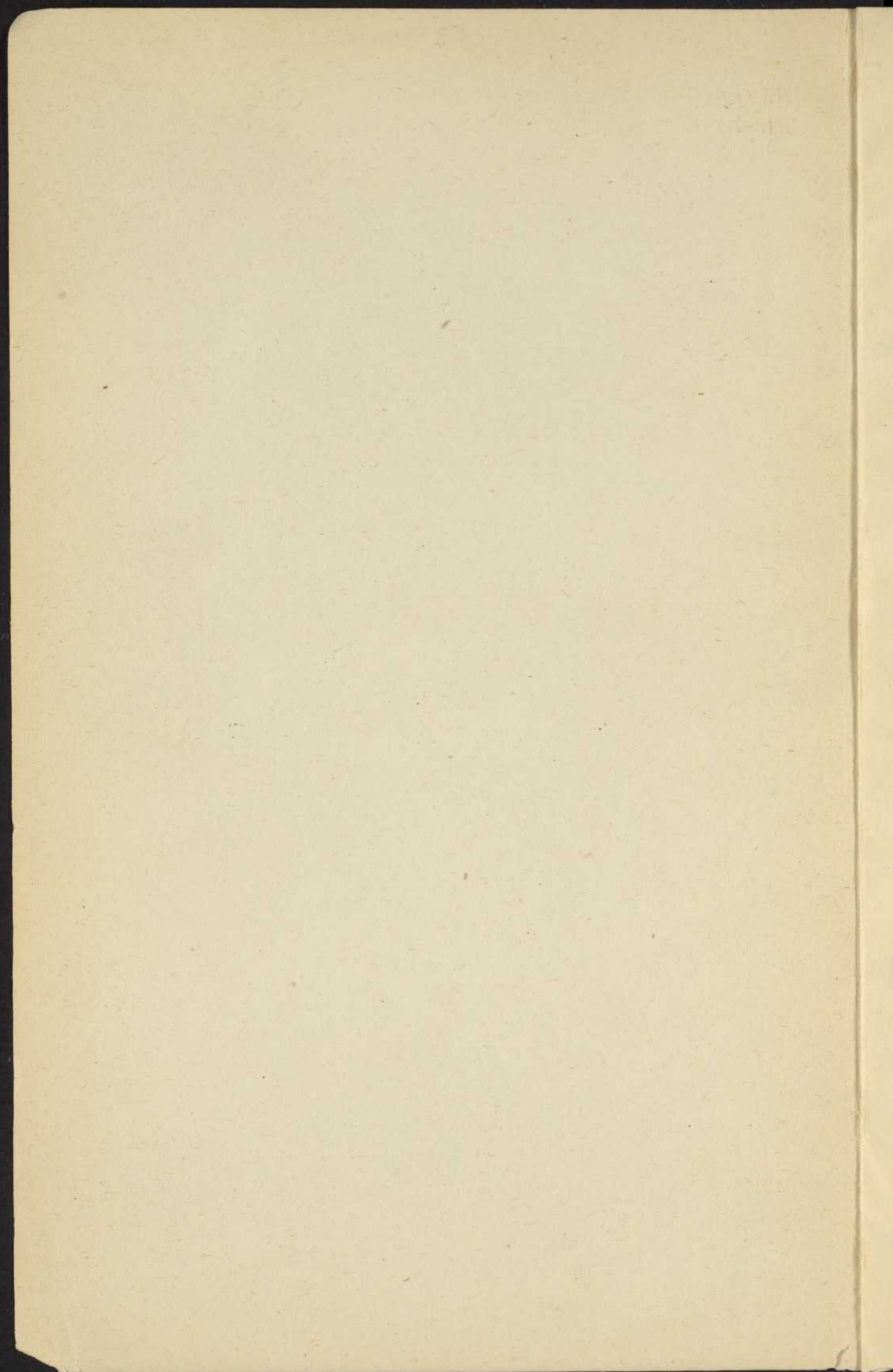
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ARMENIA
AND
KURDISTAN



LONDON:
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Editorial Note.

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

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

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

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

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

G. W. PROTHERO,

General Editor and formerly

January 1920.

Director of the Historical Section.

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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

(1) POSITION AND FRONTIERS

THE terms Armenia and Kurdistan have never been strictly defined, but Armenia is now generally used to denote the six Turkish vilayets of Van, Bitlis, Erzerum, Diarbekr, Mamuret ul-Aziz (Kharput) and Sivas. For present purposes, however, it is taken as including certain adjoining regions which contain a considerable Armenian population—viz., the vilayets of Trebizond and Adana (Cilicia), which is sometimes called "Little Armenia," and certain portions of the Transcaucasian (Russian) governments of Kars, Erivan, and Elisavetopol, which are often spoken of as "Russian Armenia."

Kurdistan is generally taken to mean that area which contains the largest Kurd population—*i. e.*, portions of the vilayets of Van, Diarbekr and Mosul—but there are Kurds throughout the whole length of the Taurus range, from Adana to the Turco-Persian borderland west of Lake Urmia (Urumia, Urmi).

Armenia and Kurdistan, according to this definition, form a region about 325 miles wide from north to south, and about 475 miles long from east to west, lying roughly between latitudes $36^{\circ} 30'$ and 41° north, and longitudes 36° and 45° east, and extending from Samsun on the Black Sea to Alexandretta (Iskanderun) on the Mediterranean, and from Kars in Transcaucasia to Urmia in north-west Persia, the total area being between 160,000 and 170,000 square miles. The region is bordered on the west by Anatolia, on the north by

the Black Sea, on the east by Transcaucasia and Azerbaijan, and on the south by Syria and Mesopotamia.

(2) SURFACE, COAST, RIVER SYSTEM AND LAKES

Surface

The whole of this region is mountainous, being a continuation westwards of the great Iranian plateau, which is here bounded on the north by the Pontic and on the south by the Taurus range. The Armenian plateau stands at an average height of from 4,000 to 6,000 ft., and above it there rise vast mountain masses, notably Ararat (17,385 ft.), one of the most majestic peaks in the world; and Sipan Dagh (13,700 ft.), an extinct volcano. Between the ranges, which run east and west parallel to one another, there are plains or valleys, sometimes broad and fertile, sometimes rugged and narrow. On the whole the country is treeless, owing partly to centuries of reckless destruction by invaders, and partly to the blighting of all enterprise under Ottoman rule. There remain, however, considerable, though dwindling, woodlands in several parts of the northern vilayets (see pp. 53-55).

Coast

On the north the coast consists of a narrow strip of low country, with Trebizond as its most important town and a number of smaller ports.

The most important ports on the Mediterranean are Mersina and Alexandretta (Iskanderun).

River System and Lakes

The mountain ranges with their heavy accumulations of snow are the source of many streams, including the great rivers Tigris and Euphrates. The eastern

branch of the Euphrates, the Murad Su, rises near the base of Mount Ararat; the western branch, the Kara Su, descends from above the plain of Erzerum. The Greater Zab rises north of Bashkala and joins the Tigris below Mosul. Of the rivers which flow into the Black Sea, the most important are the Chorokh Su and the Yeshil Irmak. The Jeihan Irmak rises in the Anti-Taurus and flows into the Mediterranean. The Araks (Araxes, Aras) rises south of Erzerum, circles round Ararat, and flows into the Caspian, south of Baku.

Van (1,300 square miles) is the most important lake, 5,270 ft. above sea-level. Other lakes are Lake Sevanga or Geukcho (about 6,000 ft. high) and Lake Urmia (about 4,000 ft. high).

(3) CLIMATE

The climate is bracing all the year round, but on the higher levels of the plateau the winter is long and the cold severe. The summer is short, very dry, and hot. The temperature at Erzerum varies from 10° F. to 84° F. The rainfall is light (about 20 in.), and there is a high proportion of cloudless days and nights.

The Black Sea coastline has a milder climate. It is shut in by the high ranges to the south, and is thus protected from the cold plateau winds and moistened by the soft sea breezes.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

On account of general ignorance and official indolence, sanitary conditions, as elsewhere in Turkey, are in a very backward state. With rare exceptions, there are no sewage arrangements, and household garbage is generally emptied in the streets. The water supply varies greatly in purity and abundance. Where it comes from springs, it is pure and good; but in most places it is quite unsuitable for human use.

Typhus, typhoid, Asiatic cholera, small-pox, tuberculosis and syphilis are prevalent everywhere. Malaria is prevalent in all the low lands of the country, and eye, ear, nose, and throat troubles are common everywhere. Infant mortality is believed to be over rather than under 50 per cent. among the Moslem population, but among Armenians it is considerably lower.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The *Armenians* originally occupied the north-eastern portion of Asia Minor. There are at present both Aryan and Semitic types of physiognomy to be seen among the Armenian peasantry, and it appears to be established that the original indigenous (or proto-Armenian) population of the plateau, which had an admixture of Assyrian and Jewish elements, was fused with the Aryan peoples (Scythians and Cimmerians), who invaded the Caucasus and Armenia in the seventh century B.C. These elements, together with the sub-arctic climate of a highland home, have contributed to produce a remarkably vigorous and virile stock, a people who have maintained a distinct national consciousness for 2,500 years, although for the greater part of that period they have been not only without political unity but bitterly persecuted. Lord Bryce considers them to be "in point of industry, intellect and energy, the equals of any of the European races."¹

From the seventh century B.C. onwards the language of the Armenians was predominantly Indo-European, although it has borrowed from the Persian.

The *Kurds* can be traced back to the Gutu ("Warriors"), an important Turanian tribe inhabiting the mountains above Assyria. They coalesced with the Medes after the fall of Nineveh, and became gradually Aryanised by the immigration into their

¹ Introduction to Buxton's *Travel and Politics in Armenia*.

high plateau of Aryan tribes in enormous numbers. There were before the war more than a million and a half Turkish, in addition to about 800,000 Persian and about 50,000 Russian, Kurds; the majority are tent-dwelling nomads, but an increasing number are pastoral, living in villages in winter and encamping in summer.

The language of the Kurds is known as *Kermanji*. It is a Persian patois with a considerable mixture of Semitic and Turanian elements. There are two important dialects: the *Zaza*, which is spoken in the western Dersim country and is apparently unintelligible to *Kermanji*-speaking Kurds, and the *Guran*, which is nearer to Persian than *Kermanji*.

There are various other elements in the Armenian population, and of these the chief are the following:—

The *Yezidis* are hardly to be distinguished from the Kurds. Their headquarters are at Jebel Sinjar, east of Mosul, although they may be met with almost anywhere throughout the region.

The *Circassians*, or Cherkesses, had their original home in the Caucasus, whence they emigrated into the Turkish empire rather than submit to the Russians. The defence of their independence under their chief Shamyl brought them prominently to the notice of Europeans. Being Moslems, they were readily received by the Porte, and settled in Asia Minor, where they are widely dispersed.

The *Lazis* are mostly confined to their own country of Lazistan, between Trebizond and Batum. They are akin to the Georgians of Transcaucasia, but are Moslems.

The *Nestorians*, *Syro-Chaldeans*, or *Assyrians*, are a Christian people, largely Semitic, who inhabit the eastern portion of Kurdistan and the western shores of Lake Urmia. They are subdivided into smaller tribes, among which are the *Jelus*. They have a capacity for culture, which indicates that they might play a leading part in the reconstruction of the land if not too much reduced by the war.

(6) POPULATION

Distribution

The figures which are given here are, except for the last table, derived from pre-war estimates, and must be taken as approximate only, from whatever source they may come.

It is probable that the figures for the Armenians are too low rather than too high, since the existence of a capitation tax tended to make the Armenians conceal rather than exaggerate their own numbers.

*Turkish Statistics**Armenia and Kurdistan*

Erzerum	645,700
Kharput	575,200
Diarbeker	471,500
Bitlis	398,700
Van	379,800

2,470,900

Asia Minor

Adana	422,400
Sivas	1,057,500
Trebizond	1,265,000

2,744,900

Mesopotamia

Mosul	500,000
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Total (Turkish) ... 5,715,800

Russian Statistics

Elisavetopol	1,117,200
Erivan	1,034,800
Kars	403,000

Total (Russian) ... 2,555,000

Grand Total ... 8,270,800

*Statistics of the six Armenian Provinces of Turkey,¹
compiled in 1912 by the Armenian Patriarchate of
Constantinople.*

	Population.	Per cent.
Turks	666,000	25·4
Kurds	424,000	16·3
Other Mussulman Races	88,000	3·4
Armenians	1,018,000	38·9
Other Christian Races—		
Nestorian, &c.	123,000	4·8
Greeks, &c.	42,000	1·6
Other religions—		
Kizibashis	140,000	5·3
Zazas, &c.	77,000	2·9
Yezidis	37,000	1·4
	2,615,000	100·0

*Statistics relating to the Armenian population of
Cilicia (Little Armenia), compiled by the Armenian
Patriarchate.*

	Armenian Population
Sis	9,500
Adana	37,900
Hadjin	21,200
Payass	11,000
Beria (Aleppo)	22,000
Germanicia (Marasche)	37,500
Ulnia (Zeitun)	21,000
Firnuze	7,016
Aintab	35,000
Antioch (Antakia)	15,500
Melitene (Malatia)	23,000
Yozgad	41,000
Gurun (Kurine)	18,500
Tephrice (Divrik)	11,300
Tarantia (Darende)	7,000
	318,416 ²

¹ According to Turkish statistics, the total population of the six provinces is 3,528,400. The Kurdish population is much underrated by the Armenian Patriarchate. A Russian estimate in 1914 gave the number of Kurds in the two vilayets of Van and Bitlis as about 473,000.

² According to Turkish statistics, the total population of these districts is 422,400.

The following statistics refer to the Armenians in Russia, published under the Kerensky Government, 1917.¹

1. Erivan	464,000
2. Alexandropol	194,000
3. Kars	115,000
4. Tiflis	393,500
5. Shusha	222,000
6. Kansak	198,000
7. Baku	117,000
8. Batum	57,000
9. Daghistan (Derbent, Armavir, Vladikavkaz, &c.)							60,000
10. Astrakhan, including Siberia and Turkestan							21,800
11. Bessarabia, with Petrograd, Moscow, Kiev, Kharkov, Rostov, Odessa, Crimea, &c.							82,000
Total	1,924,300

There are also large numbers of Armenians in the United States, in India, and in Egypt, many of whom would return to their national home if local autonomy were guaranteed to them.

Towns

The chief towns of Armenia are Trebizond, an important town on the Black Sea; Erzerum; Bitlis, near Lake Van; Diarbekr, a great centre of communication; the port of Alexandretta (Iskanderun); and Adana in Cilicia.

Movement

It is estimated that the Armenians once numbered over twenty millions, and the steady reduction of the population in modern times must be attributed almost entirely to Turkish persecution in one form or another.

During the war, and as a result of the deportations and massacres of 1915, Lord Bryce estimated in 1916²

¹ These figures are nearly double those given in the Russian census of 1897.

² See Blue Book, *Treatment of Armenians in the Ottoman Empire*.

that, of a total Armenian population in Turkey of about 1,800,000 before the war, 600,000 were massacred, 600,000 were deported, 300,000 remain in Armenia and 300,000 survive in Constantinople, Smyrna and other parts of Turkey, or in adjoining territories as refugees. Of the 600,000 who were stated to have been deported to Mesopotamia in 1915, the latest estimate received from Aleppo (December 1918)¹ puts the number of survivors at 90,000 only.

The Kurds have also suffered very severely from the vicissitudes of the war.

¹ From Alfred Backhouse, agent of the Lord Mayor's Fund.

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

B.C.

- 833-645 (*circa*) Period of Biainian Kings (about Van and Mount Ararat).
 645-331 (*circa*) Armenia under Medes and Persians.
 331-317 Armenia under Alexander and the Seleucidæ.
 317 Accession of Ardvates, who makes Armenian Kingdom independent.
 66 Tigranes II, "Great King," surrenders to Pompeius. Armenia becomes a client State to Rome.

A.D.

- 66 Nero crowns Tiridates King of Armenia.
 115-117 Armenia a Roman province (conquered by Trajan; client Kingdom restored by Hadrian).
 212 The Sassanid dynasty in Persia supplants the Arsacidæ. Beginning of long conflicts between Persia and the Armenian States.
 276 (*circa*) Tiridates and the Armenians accept Christianity from Gregory the Illuminator.
 387 and 429 Temporary partitions of Armenia between the Kings of Persia and the Emperors Theodosius I and Theodosius II.
 491 Armenian Patriarch refuses to accept Canons of Chalcedon. Breach with Byzantium and with Rome.
 637 Battle of Cadesia gives Persia and dominion of West Asia to the Arabs.
 856 (*circa*) Armenian Kingdom of Ani becomes important.
 1071 Byzantine Emperor Romanus Diogenes defeated by the Seljukian Turks, who acquire Armenia.
 1080 Foundation of Armenian Kingdom in Cappadocia.
 1335 Mongol invasion. A party of Uniats leaves Armenian Church for Roman.
 1514 Armenia conquered by the Ottoman Turk Selim I. Armenians organized into a *Millet*.
 1639 Erivan (with seat of Patriarchate) becomes Persian.
 1802 Georgia becomes a Russian province.
 1828-29 Russia obtains Erivan and the region of the Caucasus. Migration of Armenians into Russia.

- 1831 Protestant influences (especially from America) in Armenia, chiefly educational.
- 1862 Constitution (with Central and Provincial Councils) promulgated for Armenia.
- 1877 Armenians in Russia helping in the war against Turkey.
- 1878 Treaty of Berlin. The Powers press for reforms in Armenia.
- 1880 Identical note of Powers to Porte concerning reforms.
- 1881 Assassination of Alexander II. Depression of Armenians.
- 1883 Germany refuses to join England in enforcing reforms.
- 1894-96 Armenians (accused of revolutionary schemes) attacked by Kurds. The Powers protest. Wholesale massacres. Russia refuses to support England in putting pressure on the Sultan.
- 1904 Massacres in Mush district.
- 1908 Revolution in Turkey. The Armenians support the Young Turks.
- 1909 Deposition of Abdul Hamid. Massacre of Adana, &c., by the Committee of Union and Progress.
- 1914 Schemes of reforms stopped by outbreak of war.
- 1915 Massacre of Armenians on a larger scale, by the orders of the Turkish Government and with the tacit approval of the Central Powers.

HISTORICAL SKETCH

THE name *Armenian* (or a cognate expression) is first found in the cuneiform inscriptions of Darius Hystaspes. The kingdoms of Ararat, Minni, and Ashkeraz are named in the book of Jeremiah. "Minni" is supposed to be Armenia. Other designations are Hagasdan (used by the people themselves) and Urardu (Ararat). The earliest known kingdom is also called Biainas, and had for its capital Van. From the earliest times, the great plateau which generally, though with many changes in boundaries, is called by the name of Armenia, has been in subjection to whatever Power has held dominant sway in the Middle East, with intervals of independence. The Armenian language is Indo-European, but it is generally held by ethnologists that an early people (called proto-Armenian) with a Semitic admixture of Assyrians and Jews, were, in the seventh century B.C., conquered by an Aryan race which imposed its language on the

population, but never became the predominant ethnic element.

(a) *Periods of Armenian History*

The periods of Armenian history may be divided as follows :

(1) *Early Independence*.—The first period is that of the Biainian Kings, also called Khaldians,¹ ruling from Van over the district of Mt. Ararat, from about 833 B.C. to about 645 B.C. We have cuneiform inscriptions of Sarduris, the founder of the dynasty. These kings warred with the great Assyrian monarchs, and some of them were extensive conquerors, who also developed the country by constructing roads and canals. Their language is said to be neither Aryan nor Semitic. They were probably overthrown by Cyaxares the Mede.

(2) *Period of Subjection to Medes, Persians, and Greeks, circa 645 to circa 284 B.C.*—Armenia was a satrapy of the Median and Persian Empire, and was after 331 placed by Alexander under governors subject to him and his successors. In the division of his Empire, it fell to the Seleucids.

(3) *Independence and Power under Tigranes and his Successors*.—The Governor Ardvates, however, made himself independent of their rule, though Antiochus the Great tried to re-establish the Græco-Syrian supremacy. Armenia had been divided into Greater and Lesser, both of which provinces were, after 190 B.C., with the concurrence of Rome, allowed to keep their autonomy. But the great time of Armenian independence and empire began with Tigranes II (94-56 B.C.), who established a new capital at Tigranocerta, and made himself master of Mesopotamia. For a short time the ruler of Armenia held the position of King of Kings. But his alliance with Mithradates, King of Pontus, led to the fall of his dominion, after the victories of Lucullus and Pompeius (69 B.C. and 66 B.C.).

¹ Not Chaldeans.

(4) *Under Rome and Parthia as a Client State.*—The Roman conquest did not put an end to the Kingdom, which became a client State, acknowledging alternately and partially the headship of Rome and of Parthia. In 66 A.D. Nero crowned a King of Armenia with his own hand, but the subjection was not permanent. The reduction of Armenia to provincial status by Trajan was one of the exceptions to the rule against extensive conquest laid down by Augustus. Armenia was, however, abandoned by Hadrian. But all through the time of the early Roman Empire, Armenia constitutes an open question; and an expedition into Armenia is an incident in every dispute as to the Eastern frontier of the Empire.

(5) *Under the Sassanids (Revived Persian Empire).*—About 212 A.D. the Parthian or Arsacid Empire was supplanted by the revived Persian, or Sassanid, under Ardshir (Artaxerxes). This implied considerable invigoration in the one Oriental Power that proved a formidable rival to Rome. The Sassanid dynasty was more aggressive in attachment to the Zoroastrian religion than its predecessors had been. The Armenians remained under Kings belonging to a branch of the Arsacid family. When King Tiridates and his people, by the preaching of Gregory the Illuminator, became Christians (before 284 A.D.), religious animosity between Persia and Armenia was added to national antipathy. At the same time, there was no cordiality between Armenia and the Roman Empire (divided into East and West from 395 A.D.). In 387 A.D. and again about 429 A.D. agreements were made for a division of Armenia between the Emperor and the Persian King. The Armenian Kings counted for little. The Arsacid dynasty was practically abolished in 428 A.D. But the Byzantine claims were from time to time asserted. The Armenian *theme* was large in size if uncertain in loyalty; though many Armenians, such as Narses, who reconquered Italy for Justinian, rose to high places in the service of the Empire. After 450 A.D. the failure

of the Council of Chalcedon to secure ecclesiastical unity began to lead, here as elsewhere, to that weakening of the bonds of the Empire which rendered the Eastern provinces an easy prey to the advance of the Arabs. Syria, as well as Egypt, succumbed to the division in the Church. Meantime, Persia was overrun and the Sassanid dynasty overthrown by the Moslems at the battle of Cadesia in 637 A.D.

(6) *Division under the Seljuks, Mongols, &c. Mediæval Kingdoms.*—During the fifth, sixth, and seventh centuries, Armenia was divided into many small States, some of which, especially that of Ani, near Kars, attained to power and significance. This State was favoured by the Caliphs, and Ashot, of the Bagratid dynasty, was allowed by them to hold the title of King, though his father had been a martyr for the Christian faith (856 A.D.). He and his successors were supreme over many tributaries and on very friendly terms with the Byzantine Emperors, of whom one at least, the warrior Emperor, John Zimisce, was himself an Armenian. Their dominions extended from the Caspian to the Valley of Mush, but their authority suffered from the insubordination of dependent rulers (especially those of Georgia), the rivalries in the Armenian aristocracy, and the want of ecclesiastical union with the Emperors. Yet they maintained the Christian cause against Moslems of various races for some centuries, and the later Cilician Kingdom, which kept up its connection with Western Christendom and followed a crusading policy, was an offshoot from that of Ani and Kars. The ruins of Ani show both the military and financial strength of the dynasty and the artistic skill of their builders, the architecture being rich and impressive, "denoting a standard of culture which was far in advance of the contemporary standards in the West."¹ The claims passed over, towards the end of the fourteenth century, to the Lusignan family, which also

¹ H. F. B. Lynch, *Armenia*.

held (1192-1489) the titular Kingdom of Jerusalem and the real one of Cyprus. Their rule in Cyprus was for a time firm and prosperous, and many Armenians settled in the island.

During this period the prevailing regime in Armenia seems to have been one of numerous native nobles and foreign adventurers, at times coalescing under a particularly strong leader or succession of leaders. "Some were vassals of the Greek Emperor, some of the Caliph; some were Moslems, some were Christians; some were Armenians, and some were Kurds; some were descendants of Arabian Emirs and their servants." This more or less feudal regime was modified to an important degree by the pressure of the Seljuks, and the resulting tendency of many Armenians to move farther westwards towards Sivas and south-westwards towards Aleppo. The seal was set on this process by the Emperor Basil II transplanting the dynasty of Van to Sivas (1021 A.D.), and by the removal to Cilicia, in the reign of the Emperor Michael IV, of the kingdom founded in Cappadocia by Ruphen in 1080. The result was a great diminution in the Armenian nobility left in the old "Armenia." These centuries of struggle among themselves and with the Kurds and Seljuks sufficed almost entirely to eradicate them, leaving the Armenians constituted as a peasant population, with a marked proportion of persons engaged in commerce and rudimentary industries, and with the clergy as the leaders in the country.

In 1071 the Emperor Romanus Diogenes was defeated by the Seljukian Turk, Alp Arslan. Armenia first formed part of the Seljuk Empire, then broke up into a number of petty States, and after the coming of the Mongols (1235)—the most barbarous of its invaders—was for nearly 300 years the prey of nomad pastoral tribes, who destroyed all settled agriculture. In 1514 Selim I added Armenia to the dominions of the Osmanli Turks, who had been established in Constantinople since 1453.

(7) *Under the Ottoman Turks.*—The Government of the peoples under Turkey was reorganized soon after this date, and communities called *Millets* were established, each under its own religious head, who had some powers of civil jurisdiction and administration. The chief official of the Armenians recognised at Constantinople for this purpose was the Archbishop of Brusa, though the recognised Patriarch of the whole Armenian Church was (after 1441) the Katholikos of Echmiadzin (Vagarshabad) in the province of Erivan, which, in 1639, was ceded to Persia, and in 1828 to Russia. This system encouraged the growth of a community life, but degraded whatever spiritual character the priesthood still possessed. Objections to clerical government were made in the middle of the nineteenth century, and by the arrangements of 1862 (as will be shown later) the Armenians under Turkey were supposed to be under an elected council of 140 representatives, mixed clerical and lay, the Patriarch being officially president. A more definite, if only a titular, form was thus given to national aspirations. In 1914, however, the local government, as in other parts of the Turkish Empire, was practically in the hands of the *valis*, each over a *vilayet*. Associated with the vali is a *moavin*, responsible directly to the Minister of Finance at Constantinople. The *valis* are appointed by the Sultan. During the disturbances of the last decade of the nineteenth century, a promise was made that the *moavins* should be non-Moslem, and that there should also be non-Moslems directing affairs in the lesser districts.

(b) *Factors of Armenian History*

The history of the Armenian people down to comparatively modern times explains both the extent of the sufferings to which they have been, and still are, continually exposed, and the extreme difficulty of finding any effectual remedy. There are three points closely connected together, which may be briefly

examined in turn. (1) Through forced or voluntary migrations, the Armenians have been dispersed abroad in many countries, and thus have had little power of united action for resistance or reform; (2) their religious position has been peculiar to themselves, and has placed them outside the pale of any of the leading Churches; (3) although a few of their number have risen to high posts in the civil administration under the Turks, the Armenians have been, especially in the last quarter of a century, objects of jealousy and dislike, on religious, commercial, and personal grounds, to those who have the rule over them and desire their exploitation or extermination.

(1) *Dispersion*.—In the time of the Arab invasions, numbers of Armenians migrated to Constantinople and the regions near, where many acquired rank and influence. Some of the strongest of the Byzantine Emperors were of Armenian descent, and in industrial life the Armenians obtained wealth and status through their artistic skill and businesslike habits. The desolation of their land by Turks and Mongols led to a great depopulation, to remedy which, Idris, a Kurdish minister of Selim I, settled Kurds in the vacated homesteads. The Ottoman policy favoured the Kurds as a semi-independent bulwark against Persia, and as capable of maintaining, in addition, a feudal authority over the Armenians. Thus, though the Kurds were not yet the deadly enemies to the Armenians that they became later, their influence was naturally against Armenian unity. In the sixteenth century the Persians invaded Armenia, and in 1604 Shah Abbas transported many thousands of Armenians to Ispahan. They engaged early in trade with India, and received in 1688 privileges from the Company of London Merchants to the East Indies. After the Turco-Russian War of 1828-29, many Armenians (it is said 40,000) who had come to look on Russia as a protectress, migrated into Russian territory. There was a similar migration after 1878. A considerable number settled in the United States,

It is almost needless to say that in the Levant Armenians are to be found everywhere, and that they have the reputation of finding out where and how money is to be made. The virtues and vices of successful traders and artisans are to be expected in a race of superior capacities cut off from attachment to the land. The rise of the Armenians in wealth and in general importance to the European Powers coincides with the lack of political power and (in Turkish lands) of personal security. Their importance to Russia was at first of an industrial and commercial, later on of a military, character. Even in Turkey, where until 1908 they could not bear arms, or associate on equal terms with the ruling class, they could hold useful and lucrative offices, even some recognised as hereditary, such as the Mastership of the Mint. Peter the Great of Russia had encouraged them to settle in his country, in order to prosecute and to teach the manufacture of silk. But Armenian relations with Russia became more intricate with the Russian advance in Asia, from the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1802 Alexander I made Georgia, which had been under Russian influence since 1783, into a Russian province. In 1828, by arrangement with Persia, Russia obtained Erivan, and with it the ecclesiastical capital (Echmiadzin) of Armenia. By the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), Russia acquired much of the Caucasus region, along with some recognition as protectress of Christians under Moslem rule. In the later wars Kars was three times taken and twice lost by the Russians. The third time (when Loris Melikoff, a soldier of mixed Armenian and Georgian race, and in Russian service, captured it from the Turks in 1877) it was retained.

Meantime, during the period 1811-41, while Mehemet Ali was making the position of the Sultan uncertain, not only in Egypt but in Constantinople itself, Turkey began to rely for a time on Russia for the continuance of her existence, and the influence of

Russia had at least to be tolerated by the Porte, when she upheld the privileges of the Christians. The Crimean War naturally changed the aspect of things, and it can hardly be said that the Powers collectively have justified by superior effectiveness in the cause of toleration the degradation of Russia from her rôle of protectress. But Russia, though not so strongly bound to Armenia, either by racial or by religious ties, as she was to the Jugo-Slavs, has at least afforded an asylum and many careers to Armenian immigrants, and the Turkish dislike of Armenians, which led to the massacres, may have been connected with a dread of Russian encroachment. It is believed that the Tsar Alexander II had some project of an autonomous Armenia under Russian protection, but his assassination in 1881 put an end to any such scheme. The policy of his successor was not pro-Armenian, but in 1900 Russia is again found pressing the need of reforms on the Turkish Government. About the years 1900 to 1904, however, the Russian Government roused the Tatars of Transcaucasia to attack the Armenian population there. Russia disliked the independence of the Armenian Church, and professed to fear a revolutionary movement among her Armenian subjects.

The attempt to russianize the Armenians under Russian rule, and the general character of this rule, tended to make the Armenians—even after the ruin of the hopes aroused by the Young Turk revolution—look to Constantinople. The harsh treatment of the Armenians by Russia in the late war, and the existing state of Russia, have prevented the growth of any pro-Russian sentiment since 1914.

(2) *Religion*.—The Armenians adopted Christianity some forty years earlier than did the Roman Emperors, for King Tiridates was converted by Gregory the Illuminator before 284 A.D. It has also been remarked that the Armenian Church did not accept the canons of the Council of Chalcedon, and therefore was more or less separated from both Eastern and Western Christendom, and *a fortiori* from the Nestorians, who

maintained with some intellectual and spiritual vigour the other (Dyophysite) side, which was also branded as heretical at Chalcedon. But some of the peculiarities of Armenian Christianity must have originated earlier and have become accentuated by separation. The Gregorian (national) Armenians acknowledge the authority of the First Three General Councils only; they disapprove of reverence paid to images and pictures. They have their own saints, martyrs, and ritual. As in Russia, the Black Clergy, or celibates, are distinct from the White, or married village priests.

During the period of the Turkish advance attempts towards reunion with the Orthodox Church were made, while similar efforts were made towards reunion between East and West. But all such schemes proved ineffectual. A large body of Armenians were, however (from 1335), brought under Roman obedience as Uniats. Their Roman Catholic Patriarch was recognised by the Pope in 1742, and a Roman Catholic *Millet* was recognised by the Porte in 1830, though its numbers were not very considerable. This movement tended, of course, to cool the sympathy of Russia, to whom the Eastern Christians generally were beginning to look for support. In 1828 Echmiadzin became Russian, and two subordinate patriarchates subsequently came under Russian control. A third element in Armenian Christianity is the Protestantism which has spread under American influence, although the educational missions of Americans are not generally directed to proselytism, but encourage the maintenance and enlightenment of all national systems of belief and cult. In 1846 the Patriarch anathematised Protestantism; an Evangelical Church of the Armenians was then formed, and, through British influence, recognised as a Protestant *Millet*. The Armenians have generally shown staunch adherence to their faith under persecution from many quarters.

(3) *Persecution*.—The Armenians had suffered persecution from Zoroastrians, from the eastern Orthodox Emperors, and from Moslems, but only in a spasmodic

way till comparatively recent times. In fact, it is difficult to separate the elements of religious fanaticism, racial jealousy and dislike, and political apprehensions, which have combined to produce the massacres of 1894-96, 1904, 1909, and 1915, though there can be no doubt that the rage of Moslems against religious rivals was deliberately stirred up by political authorities, who played on the fear of Armenian revolutionary action. From 1878 the task of protecting the Armenians from religious persecution and political oppression may be said to have been transferred from Russia to the Powers collectively. England incurred, however, a special obligation in this respect, in that her occupation of Cyprus was declared, in a special defensive treaty with Turkey, to have been made (*a*) in order that England might assist the Porte against future encroachments or the retention of Kars, Batum, and other Asiatic provinces provisionally occupied, and in introducing necessary reforms, to be agreed upon later by the two Powers, into the government, and (*b*) for the protection of the Christian and other subjects of the Porte in these territories. In the Treaty of Berlin, Article LXI, is the important provision that

“ the Sublime Porte undertakes to carry out, without further delay, the improvements and reforms demanded by local requirements in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and to guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds. It will periodically make known the steps taken to this effect to the Powers who will superintend their application.”

This is based on Article XVI in the Treaty of San Stefano (which, of course, was to bind Russia and Turkey only). By the Articles of the Treaty of Berlin following LXI, the Porte promised complete religious liberty, with protection of sacred places and persons.

In June 1880, since Article LXI and other Articles of the Treaty of Berlin had been practically ignored by Turkey, identical notes were presented by the

representatives of the Six Powers to the Porte. They declared that

“all the reports furnished by the agents show that the state of these provinces is deplorable; . . . they are convinced that only united and incessant pressure on their part will induce the Sublime Porte to fulfil its duties in this respect. . . . I consider it my duty to call your most serious attention to the grave responsibility the Porte would incur by any fresh delays in the execution of the measures, &c., &c.”

To these representations no satisfactory answer was returned. Unfortunately for the Armenians, the assassination of their friend Alexander II occurred (as already stated) in 1881. An anti-Armenian policy was now adopted in Russia, and in 1883 the refusal of Bismarck to apply coercion from Germany was sufficient to check for the time the efforts of the Powers for reform to be initiated by the Porte. Nationalists in Armenia could now expect no external assistance, and looked rather to internal intrigue. An excuse was thus afforded to the Turkish Government to avoid the execution of treaty obligations by the revolutionary action of certain Armenian societies, which had originally grown up as a lay opposition to the conservatism of the official clerical leaders, and which had centres in the Caucasus, London, Paris, Switzerland, and elsewhere, inspired by and confident in the spirit of “nationality.” The means used against the propaganda were such as struck against many who had no share in them nor any disposition for violent action. A free hand was given to Moslem mobs in Van, Kharput, Malatia, and Trebizond to attack Armenian Christians in their homes or ordinary resorts, and to kill all who would not abjure their faith. The fierce nomad Kurds had become bitterly hostile to the Armenians since the adoption by Abdul Hamid, after the Russo-Turkish War, of the policy of setting the two peoples against each other. Arms were distributed among the Kurds, who were then let loose upon the peasant population. Turkish irregular troops were called out, and the hideous results followed of which

the record is abundant and trustworthy. In two days of June 1896, 6,000 to 7,000 Gregorian Christians were massacred in Constantinople alone. "In all, more than 100,000 men, women, and children had perished."¹ Large numbers of deportations also took place.

Meantime, Great Britain, France, and Russia had issued remonstrances to the Porte, and in May 1895 a scheme of reforms for Armenia had been submitted to it for consideration. Russia, however, refused to agree to coercion. The direct complicity of the Sultan is proved by the obvious organization of the massacres and by the fact that Roman Catholics and Orthodox Greeks had not been among the victims. It should be noted that most of the population, including the clergy and the Armenians under American influence, had no share in the national propaganda, and that many respectable Moslems tried to use their influence against the massacres.

There were more massacres in 1904 in the district of Mush, but the rise of the Young Turk party, concentrated in the Committee of Union and Progress, with its assertion of liberty and toleration, and the New Constitution of 1908, aroused Armenian hopes. The deposition of Abdul Hamid, however, in 1909, was followed by the massacre of Adana, for which a pretext was found in the pretensions of a small section of Armenians to complete independence. This massacre was part of the reactionary revolution projected by Abdul Hamid and resulting in his fall. But the extermination of the whole Armenian people was a later project, attributable to the Government of the Young Turks, whose high aims had speedily retreated into the background.

The Armenians, allowed to bear arms since 1908, had fought for the Turkish Government in the Balkan Wars, yet when war against Russia was declared by Turkey in 1914 they were regarded with suspicion, and were consequently disarmed. Thence ensued mas-

¹ Bryce, *Treatment of Armenians*, p. 624.

sacres on a larger scale than ever, and affording an outlet both to Moslem zeal and to German industrial and commercial expansion. In these it is estimated that 600,000 Armenians perished.¹

(c) *Historical Note on the Kurds*

The ancient Gutu (Assyrian Gardu or Kardu), the first-known ancestors of the Kurds in the mountains north of Assyria, seem to have maintained their independence throughout the period of the Assyrian Empire; their name appears on cuneiform inscriptions on an equality with the Syrians and Hittites and other peoples of Western Asia. The Gutu were conquered by Cyrus, and furnished a contingent of men to the Persian army. They appear in Xenophon as the Carduchi who opposed the return of the Ten Thousand. Subsequently, they passed under the domination of the Macedonians, the Parthians, and the Sassanians. Their most flourishing period was in the twelfth century, when, under the Kurdish Saladin the Great and his successors of the Ayyubite dynasty, Kurdish chieftainships were established from Khorasan to Egypt and Yemen.

After the defeat of Shah Ismail of Persia by Sultan Selim the "Grim" in 1514, the Kurdish historian Idris was entrusted with the organization of the conquered territories. Idris did not attempt to break up the clans or depose hereditary chieftains. He merely divided the territory into Sanjaks, with the chiefs as governors. No further change took place until after

¹ Bryce, *Treatment of Armenians*, p. 651. Later evidence has raised this number to about 1,000,000. In the latest massacres the Nestorian or Syrian Christians suffered with the Armenians. These had migrated into Armenia to escape the ravages of Tamerlane during the last part of the fourteenth century. A body of them settled on Lake Archag (the so-called Chaldeans were a later secession). They received some kind of recognition from Pope Julius III (1552). In Armenia their chief settlements have been near Lake Urmia and in the Hakkiari district, where there were frightful massacres and deportations in 1915.

the Russo-Turkish War of 1828-9, when the Kurds, who had spread as far as Angora, attempted to free themselves from Turkish control. They were subdued by Reshid Pasha in 1834; their towns were garrisoned, and the local chieftains superseded in many places by Turkish Beys. Another rising took place in 1843, but was completely suppressed. In 1880-81 Sheikh Obaidullah attempted to set up an independent Kurdish principality under Turkish suzerainty. But Obaidullah soon placed the Turkish Government in a difficult position, by making an inroad into Persia; and Turkey withdrew her support from a movement which she had first regarded as a useful counterpoise to Armenian nationalism. It was fear of the latter that moved the Porte, in 1891, to raise a body of Kurdish irregular cavalry, and to follow the disastrous policy of urging the Kurds to attack the Armenians, with whom, until the Armenian nationalist movement began, they had lived without serious quarrels, and in the bond of common hostility towards Turk and Persian.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

INTRODUCTORY NOTE

FOR modern conditions—as they are or were lately supposed to be—the source to which one would naturally look is the Constitution sanctioned by the Porte in 1862, and printed *in extenso* at the end of Mr. H. F. B. Lynch's *Armenia*. Mr. Lynch remarks, however, that “the General Assembly of the Armenians met regularly in Constantinople until 1892. Some of the Provincial Assemblies still continue their meetings. But the Constitution is [1901] practically in abeyance, owing to the strained relations at present existing between the Palace and the Armenians.” Still, the document is instructive, and some of its chief articles will be quoted or epitomised below. A few years ago the National General Assembly, previously Gregorian only, opened its doors to the Protestant Armenians, who then began to attend its sessions. This is the strongest evidence of national unity yet afforded.

Another set of reforms was drawn up by the Great Powers and imposed on the Young Turk Government in 1914; the chief point of these was to be the appointment of inspectors-general over groups of vilayets. But the declaration of war stopped any attempt to realise the scheme.

(1) RELIGIOUS

Neither in the Constitution nor in practice have religious questions been entirely separate from the political and educational.

Fundamental Principles of Constitution of 1862

Article 3.—“The duties of the nation are to care for the moral, intellectual, and material wants of its

members, to preserve intact the creed and traditions of the Armenian Church, to diffuse equally the knowledge necessary to all men among the children of both sexes, of all classes, &c., &c."

Chapter I—The Central National Administration

Article 1.—The Patriarch of Constantinople is declared to be the President of all the National Assemblies and the representative of their executive authority, and in particular circumstances he is the medium of the execution of the orders of the Ottoman Government.

Articles 2-7.—Regulate a very elaborate system for the choice of the Patriarch (from a list made by the Religious Assembly, from which is made a shorter list by the Political Assembly, the Sublime Porte being asked to confirm the choice).

Articles 8-16.—Competence of Patriarch (extensive powers over officials; yet obliged to act with "competent Assemblies" and with a patriarchal bureau).

Articles 17-23.—Election and functions of the Patriarch of Jerusalem.

Article 24.—*National Religious Assembly.* "Fourteen worthy ecclesiastics."

Article 25.—Selection, by General Assembly, of members of Religious Assembly from list presented by General Religious Assembly.

Article 26.—Dissolution once in two years.

Article 28.—Duties "to develop in the nation the religious sentiment, . . . visit from time to time the national schools," &c.

Articles 29-31.—Special Religious Assemblies, final appeal to Ecumenical Patriarch (at Echmiadzin).

Articles 32-35.—*Educational.* "All monasteries are obliged to promote the moral improvement of the nation. Hence each one, according to its capacity, should have a seminary, or library, or printing office, or hospital, and other similar useful establishments."

(2) POLITICAL

Articles 36-43 of the Constitution provide for a *Political Assembly* of twenty laymen well acquainted with the national affairs and with the laws of the Government. It comprises Councils and Committees: Educational, Economic, Judicial, for Monasteries, Financial, on Wills, on Hospitals, on "Quarters."

Articles 57-84, on *National General Assembly* and its functions (20 ecclesiastical deputies, elected by clergy in Constantinople; 40 deputies from provinces; 80 deputies from Quarters of Constantinople—total 140).

By *Article 65*, all who pay 75 piastres as national tax have votes for a lay deputy.

Chapter II: Articles 85-89.—General Laws for Assemblies and Councils.

Chapter III: Articles 90-93.—On *National Taxation*, general and special: distribution and collection for Constantinople by Political Assembly, General Assembly, and Councils of Quarters.

Chapter IV: Articles 94-98.—*National Provincial Administration*. Provincial Assemblies, each under its Metropolitan.

Chapter V.—Arrangements for revision.

It is noticeable that this Constitution differs from European Constitutions in the absence of any close connection between representation and taxation. There are financial and economic bodies, but their function seems to be rather to control sales, keep accounts, and arrange assessment, than actually to levy taxes. The principle is laid down (*Article 90*) that "every member of the nation who is of age and capable of earning money is bound to participate in the national expenditure by paying a tax. This tax is annual, and the basis of its distribution is the capacity of the individual." But there is nothing apparently in the nature of an annual budget presented to any assembly, nor of amounts demanded by a responsible finance minister. The phrase, however, "until the national

taxation be fixed in the provinces" (Article 98) seems intended to suggest a future system of parliamentary taxation. Another peculiar point is the large preponderance given to the Armenian element in Constantinople above that of the provinces.

In the opinion of competent travellers, before the massacres of 1915-16, the Armenian question was practically a Kurdish question; the problem was not so much to maintain a fair amount of religious toleration on the Turkish side and of submissiveness on the Armenian, as to reduce within the bounds of law and order the tribes of Kurds, who are a perpetual threat both to Moslem and to Christian civilisation. But the Sultan's system of arming and using the Kurds as an instrument against the Armenians has probably rendered nugatory any schemes by which those people might have been deprived of their dangerous powers. It may be noted, however, that the Kurds have little more than a tribal consciousness, without any nationalist policy; and during the 1915 massacres some of the Kurds of the Aleppo vilayet and of the country between Kharput and Erzingan showed themselves friendly to the Armenians.

(3) EDUCATIONAL

Religious and moral education is to be directed in the national schools by the National Religious Assembly (Constitution of 1862, Article 28). The educational functions of monasteries are recognised by Article 48, which puts them under a Special Council. According to all accounts, the Turkish Government has discouraged education in the Armenian language everywhere. Hence the scope given to the American missionaries, whom the Government, as a rule, were afraid of opposing, and who endeavoured, generally, to educate without denationalizing. It is said to be the fact that a considerable number of the best educated Armenians (as well as persons of other subject races) have received instruction in the American colleges. There are also Roman Catholic schools to which the

Uniat Armenians and sometimes other denominations have access.

There are in some parts of Armenia a good many schools of various types, some of them supported by private benefaction. In spite of the provision for clerical inspection, the teachers are generally lay. In Van, when Mr. Lynch visited that region, boys were being taught languages, literature, mathematics, and natural science, also music. Girls were mainly taught by women. Although some of the establishments were church schools, they were all, including the private schools, under the regulation of a Turkish Minister of Instruction. The schools were primary, secondary, and collegiate, but owing to the poverty of the people the length of the educational course was generally short. Russian influence was strong. In other parts Gregorians and Catholics, both boys and girls, attended the same schools. The censorship of the Press is still an obstacle. In some few quarters German influences prevailed, the Armenian teachers having had part of their education in Germany.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

(1) POPULAR OPINION AND NATIONAL SENTIMENT

The popular opinion of so widely-diffused a people as the Armenians is not easily gauged, nor can we confidently speak of national sentiment among a race which has never constituted a single and comprehensive State. Nevertheless, there is among the Armenians a strong feeling of national fellowship. Whether this is accompanied with either the desire to coalesce into a national State or the capacity for maintaining a State if once created, opinion among experts is much divided. Unlike the Greeks or the Italians, or even the Serbians, who have nourished for centuries a common stock of traditions and aspirations especially connected with particular territories, and so furnishing a material basis for a centralized political community, the Armenians have no local

nucleus nor definite area of homeland. Nor have they a Mecca, Jerusalem, or Rome; and, though they have similar memories of persecutions, they do not bear common allegiance to one Church. They have, however, developed an intense devotion to old Armenia, while the divisions between Gregorians, Roman Catholics, and Protestants are tending to disappear. There is no religious fanaticism among the laity, and little, apparently, among the clergy. The Armenians therefore are capable of a larger religious toleration than is often found in persecuted peoples, and this fact may stand them in good stead in the future.

(2) EXPANSION AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

These depend very much on the extent to which, by voluntary migrations, the Armenians may become the dominant people in a definite area. Their commercial and artistic faculties are everywhere acknowledged, and as mechanics they are excellent. They have, in spite of many centuries of non-military status, shown military ability (as in the Russian and Turkish Wars, and even in some places during the latest massacres); and although, for the most part, the Turco-Armenian peasantry have, through insecurity, been heavily handicapped, they have also, under more favourable circumstances, achieved success in agriculture.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) INTERNAL

(a) *Roads, Caravan Routes, Paths, &c.*

ARMENIA possessed at the outbreak of the war a considerable mileage of so-called carriage roads, but these were, speaking generally, in a bad state of repair. The advent of the Young Turks to power in 1908 was the signal for the initiation of many schemes of internal economic improvement, and a contract was entered into in 1910 with a French company, the *Entreprise des Routes d'État*, for the repair of existing roads and the construction of new roads in Armenia and elsewhere at a total cost of about £2,000,000. The roads to be constructed were: (1) Trebizond—Erzerum (begun in 1913),¹ (2) Erzerum—Erzingan—Sivas—Samsun, (3) Erzerum—Van, (4) Erzerum—Bitlis, (5) Erzerum—Rize, (6) Kerasund—Karahissar—Erzingan, (7) Erzingan—Kharput. Only a small part of the programme, however, had been executed when the war broke out.

The principal road systems in Armenia are:—

(1) The road from Erzerum to Trebizond, which is part of the ancient caravan route from Persia to the Black Sea, and passes through Bayazid, Erzerum, Baiburt, and Gumush-Khane, *via* the Zigana, Vavuk, and Kop Dagh passes. The highest point on this road is 6,000 ft., and the passes are under deep snow during the winter.

(2) The road from Samsun to Baghdad, *via* Sivas, Mezre, Arghana Maden, Diarbekr, and Mosul. This is the greatest trade artery of the country.

(3) The road from Sivas through Kaisarie to Adana and the Mediterranean. Only a small portion of this road is in Armenia.

¹ See *infra*, p. 38.

During the war the Turks, at German instigation, made a certain number of the more important roads suitable for motor traffic, and work of a similar nature was also done by the Russians during their occupation of Erzerum, Trebizond, and the surrounding country.

Apart from carriage roads, all over Armenia there are roads which can at most times of the year be used by the *araba* or ox-cart. This, the chief means of transport, is a two-wheeled cart drawn by a team of from two to four bullocks, and capable of taking a load of from 7 to $11\frac{1}{2}$ cwt. Buffaloes are also used, and can draw larger loads than bullocks, but require more care in management.

In the mountainous districts transport is conducted by means of pack animals, and the tracks used by these are numerous and can be relied on. They have been used from time immemorial as means of communication, and need no keeping in repair, for, if they are damaged, a diversion is readily found. They are described in detail in various handbooks.

Mountain paths and tracks, only known locally, also connect the various villages with each other and with the summer pastures. They can nearly all be used for pack transport, especially if the animals are lightly loaded. Porters are seldom used for long marches.

(b) *Rivers and Waterways*

Although Armenia abounds in rivers, there is practically no inland navigation, except upon Lake Van. The opinion has been expressed that stretches of many of the rivers might be made navigable, and that the blighting rule of the Turk is responsible for the absence of any attempt in this direction. This opinion should be accepted with reserve. In most of the rivers, owing to the configuration of the country, the current is swift, and though in spring they are very full they dwindle in summer to small streams, so that, while money spent on their improvement with a view to irrigation would probably prove profitable, an inland

navigation scheme would prove expensive and unremunerative.

The only river upon which there is any navigation is the Yeshil Irmak, which is used by boats from its mouth as far as its confluence with the Germeli Su, a distance of about 100 miles.

The Euphrates between Kemakh and Keban Maden is used for floating timber down-stream. The Tigris from Diarbekr is used for the transport of goods and occasionally passengers down-stream on rafts called *keleks*, made of wood supported on inflated skins. At the journey's end the skins are deflated and taken up-stream again on pack animals. The river is also used for floating timber.

Lake Van, an important inland water, six times the size of Lake Geneva, has been navigated from the earliest times, and there are normally about 80 sailing boats plying on it. The type of boat is small, from 30 to 55 ft. long and 15 to 20 ft. beam. It is built of oak or ash, carries a huge lug sail, and will take a load of about 20 tons. A small motor-boat for the conveyance of mails was put on the lake in 1909.

(c) *Railways*

Although schemes for the construction of railways in Armenia, in common with the rest of Asiatic Turkey, had begun to take definite shape between 1908 and 1912, railways had not actually penetrated the country when war broke out. Even now they have only entered it on the north-east.

Armenia is approached by two systems of railways: the Turkish (gauge 1.46 m., approximately the British standard gauge of 4 ft. 8½ in.) on the west and the south, and the Russian (gauge 5 ft. and 3 ft. 6 in.) on the east.

The *Turkish* lines are:—

1. The Anatolian Railway, Haidar-Pasha—Eski Shehr—Angora. An extension for strategic purposes *via* Yozgad in the direction of Sivas

- was partly constructed during the early years of the war. When Russian efforts in the war slackened after the Russian Revolution, work on this extension seems to have been discontinued.
2. The Baghdad Railway, which starts from the terminus of the southern arm of the Anatolian Railway at Konia, and runs parallel with the general direction of the south-western and southern boundaries of Armenia for many miles. Up to the present it has only penetrated Armenia as far as Nisibin (whence it is to be extended to Mosul), but it is likely to have a considerable influence upon the direction of Armenian trade in the future, particularly if a branch line is built to Diarbekr and Arghana Maden, as was intended in the original scheme. Since 1914 a Decauville track has connected the copper mines at Arghana Maden with Diarbekr.
 3. It is stated that a Decauville tramway has been constructed from Ula Kishla through Kaisarie to Sivas. This is probably preliminary to the construction of a standard gauge railway. Only the last 60 miles or so of this route lie within Armenia.

The *Russian* railways entering Armenia are:—

1. A line from Sarikamish to Erzerum (gauge 3 ft. 6 in.). This line, which has been completed during the war, is an extension of the Tiflis—Kars—Sarikamish line (5 ft. gauge), which was opened for traffic as far as Sarikamish in 1913. The line was being extended from that point to the Turkish frontier before the war, but it is probable that its construction was always intended to serve strategic rather than economic purposes. It was being continued by the Russians past Erzerum to Erzingan, but work was stopped on the Russian retirement from Armenia.

2. A line (gauge 3 ft. 6 in.) running west from the Tiflis—Julfa—Tabriz line (gauge 5 ft.) at Shah-Takhtai (Shahhtakhtinskaya, Shakh Takhti), entering Armenia near Bayazid and running as far as Kara Kilissa. Construction was being continued towards Erzerum up to March 1917. A branch from this line was started from Bayazid, down the valley of the Bende Mahi, to the head of Lake Van at Arnis. This had reached a point 26 miles from Arnis before the end of March, 1917.
3. A steam tramway was recently in course of construction from Takau, at the south-west corner of Lake Urmia, to Rayat, just inside the Turkish border, near Rowanduz. It was expected that this line would be ready for traffic by September 1917. From Takau there was a steamboat service across the lake to a point on the north-eastern shore opposite Tabriz, where a branch from Sufian, on the Julfa—Tabriz line, comes down to the lake.

Projected Railways.—In April 1914 a concession was granted to a French company, the Régie Générale de Chemins de Fer et de Travaux Publics, for the execution of a comprehensive scheme of railway construction in Armenia. In return for the negotiation of a loan of 800 million francs to the Turkish Government through certain French banks, the company was empowered to build the following lines:—

1. A railway connecting Samsun, Sivas, Kharput and Arghana.
2. A railway connecting Arghana, Bitlis and Van.
3. A railway from Erzerum to Trebizond.
4. A railway connecting Erzerum with Erzingan and Sivas.

These lines were to be completed within 10 years. The concession gave the company the reversion of the ports of Samsun and Trebizond (*see below*) in the event of the lapsing of the agreement then in existence with the National Bank of Turkey.

A glance at the map will show that, if the railways contemplated by the concession were built, Armenia, except for the south-eastern districts of Van vilayet, would be well supplied with good internal communications; but beyond the construction of a few miles of the permanent way from Samsun towards Sivas, nothing had been accomplished when war broke out.

In September 1911 a preliminary contract for the construction of a railway from Kerasund to Karahissar (75 miles) was entered into between the Government and a representative of the Franco-Turkish Bank.

(d) *Posts, Telegraphs, and Telephones*

Particulars of the Turkish postal system have been given in *Turkey in Europe*, No. 16 of this series. There was before the war no telephone system in Armenia for civil purposes, but all the important centres were connected by telegraph lines. Bashkalah was a centre for telegraphic communication with Persia.

(2) EXTERNAL

(a) *Ports*

Trebizond.—Though Trebizond is one of the most important of the Turkish Black Sea ports and the chief outlet for a considerable trade from as far east as Tabriz in Persia and as far south as Mosul, very little had been done before the war toward making it a serviceable port. A certain amount of work had been begun, including the construction of an iron pier, and in 1911 an option was granted to the National Bank of Turkey for the construction of a harbour, in connection with which surveys were made by the English firm of Sir John Jackson, Ltd.; but nothing tangible had been accomplished. Trebizond remained practically an open roadstead down to the time of its occupation by the Russian forces, and the only construction in the nature of a breakwater was a mole 150 yards in length extending east from Kalmek Point, on the west side

of the bay, and affording shelter for small craft. In stormy weather steamers were compelled to take shelter at Platana, about 8 miles west of Trebizond.

The Russians during their occupation constructed a breakwater, which is reported to have made the harbour safe for vessels of any tonnage in any weather, even when a strong north wind is blowing. They also improved the facilities for handling cargo. Before the war all goods were loaded and discharged at a small jetty about 175 yards long, by means of lighters capable of carrying about 30 tons. The jetty was equipped with two small cranes and had a depth of about two feet of water alongside. The Russians completed and extended the pier which had been begun, and laid water-pipes down to the harbour.

Until recently Trebizond was equally badly served on the land side. The only means of communication with the interior was the so-called carriage road from Erzerum, which had fallen into bad repair. It was being remade before war broke out, and work had been completed as far as Sevislik (18 miles from Trebizond). It is stated that this road has been repaired by the Russians and is now fit for motor traffic all the way to Erzerum. A motor road and railway have also been constructed along the coast, connecting Trebizond with Batum, the Black Sea port for Baku on the Caspian. Both of these communications with Batum were built for strategic purposes, and it is improbable that either will be of great commercial value.

The population of Trebizond is about 60,000. The industries of the town are confined to the manufacture of linen cloth and silver filigree work, tanning, and a little weaving of cotton, silk, and wool. Tobacco and filbert nuts are normally the chief articles of export, the nuts coming from the Lazistan and Elevi districts as well as from the Trebizond sanjak itself. It seems probable that the trade of Trebizond will decrease with the development of Armenia. The construction of a railway to Erzerum would involve crossing high passes, and the cost would be very heavy. It is likely,

therefore, that the railways will in general run east and west, following the direction of the valleys, and that trade will be drawn to Samsun rather than to Trebizond.

The following is a list of the principal steamship lines which called at Trebizond in 1912:—

Nationality.	Name of Company.	Service.
Turkish ..	Gumushlian Co.	Weekly.
" ..	Mahsusseh Co.	"
" ..	Terekki Co.	"
" ..	Gourji Co.	"
French ..	Messageries Maritimes N. Paquet & Cie.	Called fortnightly at Trebizond and Samsun, and at Kerasund and the smaller ports only on their return journey.
Italian ..	Società Nazionale Italiana di Servizi Marittimi	Normally a fortnightly service, much dimin- ished in 1912 on account of Turco- Italian War.
Austrian ..	Oesterreichischer Lloyd	Irregularly.
British ..	Bell's Orient Line (Moss Steamship Co. and the Ellerman Line had called by way of experi- ment prior to 1912)	
German ..	Deutsche Levante Linie (about 1907 the Nord- deutscher Lloyd also called)	
Greek ..	Pan-Hellenic Steam Navi- gation Co.	
Rumanian ..	Danube Co., of Galatz Kanake Co.	
Russian ..	Compagnie Russe de Navi- gation à Vapeur Sochum	

In 1913, 643 steamers (total 1,004,241 tons) and 5,284 sailing vessels (mainly Turkish, total 27,577 tons) entered and cleared at Trebizond. These figures were slightly below the normal, owing to the Balkan War.

Kerasund.—This town lies about 70 miles west of Trebizond, on a promontory projecting northward. There are two anchorages. One, in a bay to the westward of the point, has a depth of from 8 to 10 fathoms, and is generally used by steamers calling at Kerasund, as the Customs House is on this side. It is, however, exposed to westerly winds. The other, facing eastward in Demir Kapi bight, has a depth of 12-13 fathoms, and is sheltered from the west and north-west.

A hilly road, suitable for wheeled traffic, but in a state of disrepair, leads from Kerasund to Karahissar in the interior and thence to other parts of Asia Minor.

The population of Kerasund consists of about 24,000 Turks, Greeks, and Armenians. The trade of the town is in the hands of the Armenians.

Most of the shipping lines which call at Trebizond call also at Kerasund.

Samsun.—This port is still an open roadstead, the nearest point at which vessels can anchor being a quarter of a mile from the shore, where the depth is 3 fathoms. Three-quarters of a mile out the depth is 6 fathoms. The anchorage is unsafe in winter, owing to northerly and north-easterly winds. There is an iron pier, 160 ft. long, for the Customs House, and other piers, 100 to 250 ft. long, some of which have cranes.

An option for the construction of a harbour was granted by the Turkish Government to the National Bank of Turkey and, in connection with this, a survey was made by the English firm of Sir John Jackson Ltd. It was estimated that the harbour would cost £900,000. Nothing, however, had been done before war broke out.

At present the only means of communication with the interior is the road to Sivas, part of the old trade route between Baghdad and the Black Sea. This was suitable for wheeled traffic before the war, and has since been made into a good motor road.

The population of Samsun is about 36,000. There are no manufactures of importance in the town, the

chief business being of the usual forwarding and agency kind.

Other ports on the Black Sea doing a small trade are Rize, Ordu, and Tireboli. None of these was equipped as a port when war broke out, but it is probable that at Ordu something has since been done for strategic reasons, the roadstead being a good one and communication with the interior less difficult than from Kerasund.

The following return shows the nationality and tonnage of the vessels calling at the ports in 1912:—

—	Trebizond.	Samsun.	Kera- sund.	Ordu.	Rize.	Tireboli.
1. Steamers—	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Turkish	411,903	401,022	319,037	342,436	204,634	80,576
French	232,032	230,897	93,504	103,216	—	—
Austro-Hungarian	191,520	190,683	189,613	48,777	176,180	—
Russian	169,535	92,908	119,194	118,511	160,623	76,465
German	56,268	60,310	29,259	8,272	—	—
British	5,196	1,738	—	—	—	—
Italian	2,065	3,671	5,954	—	—	—
Greek	1,835	2,907	1,182	1,063	689	—
Rumanian	1,542	681	470	—	940	—
Persian	1,084	1,084	542	542	—	—
	1,072,980	985,901	758,755	622,817	543,066	157,041
2. Sailing vessels—	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons	Tons
Turkish	25,036	11,670	12,331	6,640	9,908	10,095
Russian	113	240	280	116	364	—
Greek	—	144	192	—	389	—

German shipping at Trebizond in 1913 had increased to 82,507 tons, and, the Italian steamers having recommenced their service, the Italian total rose to 46,759 tons. Turkish shipping fell to 250,918 tons.

(b) *Cable and Wireless Communication*

When war broke out Armenia was not connected by cable with any foreign country except Russia (at Batum), nor was there any wireless installation in the

country. The land line from Constantinople to Batum, which passes through Samsun and Trebizond, has been in existence for some years.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

(a) *Labour Supply*¹

Emigration.—Emigration from Armenia to Russia, Turkey, and the United States has been very active for many years past. Three distinct causes have operated in different localities:—

(1) By far the most important was the Turkish persecution of the Armenians. Besides being subjected to recurrent massacres, Armenians have been for years systematically dispossessed of their land by the State in favour of Mohammedans. Taxation, also, fell very heavily on them, and they were liable to constant raiding by the Kurds, for which no redress was obtainable. Oppression was greatest in Van and Bitlis vilayets where, at the end of last century, the most fertile soil was in Armenian hands but was steadily passing to Mohammedans. In Bitlis vilayet in 1906 they possessed only one-tenth of the land that was originally theirs. Whole villages once Armenian had become Kurdish, and the desire to emigrate was so widespread in Bitlis vilayet in 1907 that little sowing was done.

In 1908 the Turkish Revolution kindled new hopes among the Armenians, and many returned. In that year 40,000 Armenians entered Turkish Armenia from Transcaucasia alone (4,000 to Erzerum, 7,000 to Van, 4,000 to Bitlis). The returning emigrants brought back money and an improved knowledge of agriculture and crafts, and consequently there was a marked increase in the revenues. In Bitlis vilayet the tithes increased from £T 25,000 in 1907 to £T 70,000 in 1911.

By 1911, however, the Kurds were raiding

¹ For estimates of population see *supra*, pp. 6 to 8.

freely again, especially in the more distinctively Armenian vilayets of Van and Bitlis. The loss of Turkish prestige in the Balkan War further encouraged Kurd lawlessness, and in 1913 the Armenians were rapidly emigrating to Russia and America, more than 7,000 passing a single Russian frontier post between January and October of that year. Agrarian spoliation was becoming more pronounced, and Armenian houses in the more remote districts were being systematically handed over to Kurds by the Turkish authorities.

(2) In Erzerum vilayet, where Kurdish aggression was less menacing, the lack of industrial enterprise caused a considerable emigration up to 1912. In 1910 the numbers were estimated at over 5,000 each for Constantinople and for Russia, and rather under 5,000 for America. In Trebizond vilayet unemployment was less felt, owing to the comparative prosperity attending the cultivation of tobacco and nuts and poultry-rearing. In 1912 the Balkan War checked emigration by reducing the man-power of the country; and there were even complaints that new industrial enterprises in Trebizond failed for want of labour.

(3) A succession of bad harvests and the failure of the orange crops in 1910 led to a rapid local emigration from Rize district to Russia, Constantinople, and the Balkan countries.

Finally, after the Russian invasion, all the Mohammedan population fled. There were said (1918) to be 100,000 fugitives at Angora, and 80,000 at Konia (probably Turks).

Immigration.—There has been immigration of Moslems from Russia and from European Turkey. Such immigrants have been encouraged by the Turkish Government by grants of from £T 18 to £T 30¹, according to the size of their families, and by immunity from taxation for five years. Their numbers rapidly

¹ Turkish *lira*, normal value 18s.

increased at the close of the Balkan War, as the State sent to Armenia Mohammedans emigrating from the lost Turkish territories in Europe. In Sivas alone 171 families were thus settled by the State, Armenians being dispossessed in their favour.

Seasonal Emigration.—In agricultural districts which had easy access to a market, there was formerly a seasonal migration of labourers for the harvest only, and there were other temporary removals towards the large western towns of Asia Minor for periods varying from 6 months to 5 years, at the end of which the workmen would return home with their earnings. Except for the tribal organization of the Kurds, a loose communal organization was the only existing form of association. Labourers from the same district would form gangs for emigration purposes, and places left empty by death would be filled from the same locality under the control of the local headman. A seasonal emigration took place for 8 months of every year from Lazistan (the district between Trebizond and the Russian frontier) to Batum and the Caucasus, or to Constantinople and the Balkan States. These men were at home for the 4 winter months only, and the agricultural work was left to women. The numbers of the Lazis are much reduced by their addiction to the vendetta.

(b) *Labour Conditions*

Up to 1908 Armenian workmen were not allowed to travel freely. They might emigrate on payment of an emigration tax, and the communally organised seasonal emigration was permitted, but individual travel either for commercial purposes or in search of employment was prohibited. The abolition of these restrictions was expected to have a beneficial effect, but the outbreak of war put an end to the short-lived hopes of industrial prosperity. Strikes are prohibited by the penal code, and, speaking generally, such labour legislation as existed in Armenia before the war was of a purely

negative character, tending to repress rather than to encourage. Harvest wages were from 1s. to 1s. 4d. per day.

(2) AGRICULTURE

The areas of cultivated and uncultivated land in Armenia are approximately as follows:—

Vilayet.	Arable.	Mountains, barren lands, forest and pasture.	Total.
	sq. miles.	sq. miles.	sq. miles.
Van	12,000	5,000	17,000
Erzerum	8,700	13,400	22,100
Sivas	18,000	11,000	29,000
Bitlis	7,500	5,500	13,000
Mamuret ul-Aziz	7,250	6,250	13,500
Diarbekr	11,800	3,700	15,500
Trebizond	2,664	9,723	12,387
	67,914	54,573	122,487

In addition, there are in Erzerum 3,400 square miles of cultivable land not yet cultivated.

(a) *Products of Commercial Value.*

Vegetable Products.—The chief crops cultivated in Armenia are tobacco, filberts, and cereals. Cereals have been to a great extent ousted in the Black Sea area by the Samsun-Bafra tobacco, the excellent quality of which makes its cultivation profitable. Moreover, in the interior, where the richer cereal-growing plains are situated, heavy wheeled carts and pack animals have hitherto been the only means of transport. This difficulty, combined with the general insecurity of the country, discouraged the farmers from increasing their production for outside markets. The inland regions might be made to yield ten times as much agricultural produce as they do at present.

Cereals. Wheat, barley, rye, and millet are grown

generally, oats in many districts, maize more especially on the coast ranges of the Black Sea (where it is practically the only grain crop), rice in the valley of the Chorokh, the districts of Malatia and Kharput, at Akra and Amadia, and also to a small extent at Sairt, Diarbekr, Mardin and Nisibin.

The vilayet of Bitlis, which includes the fertile plains of Mush and Bulanik, produces a particularly excellent wheat, but communications are so scanty that no attempt is made to do more than satisfy the local demand for grain. In spite of this, there is always a considerable surplus, which is left to rot in the underground storehouses. Millet is the most common crop because it requires the least attention. The same conditions prevail in the vilayet of Van.

The fertile regions in the vilayets of Diarbekr and Mamuret ul-Aziz produce, even under the existing unfavourable conditions, a large surplus of wheat, which is stored in warehouses protected from the weather by coverings of straw and liquorice branches, and can thus be preserved from 5 to 10 years. In times of bad harvest, large demands are made on these reserves by neighbouring vilayets. Diarbekr sows annually about 166,667 cwt. of wheat and 83,333 cwt. of barley, obtaining on the average a ninefold return.

The vilayet of Sivas could readily convert its cereal production into a source of wealth. In 1913 its wheat harvest amounted to 79,000 tons, valued at £500,000. The crops of the vilayet are rich; the sanjaks of Sivas and Amasia in particular grow a valuable variety of wheat.

The vilayet of Erzerum grows sufficient wheat and other grain for its own consumption.

The vilayet of Trebizond is the poorest in cereals, the chief crop, maize, barely supplying local needs for 8 months of the year.

*Filberts*¹ probably rank next to tobacco in economic importance. They are grown extensively along the

¹ See also below, p. 70.

Black Sea coast within 30 miles of the sea, especially round Kerasund, where they cover 460 square miles, and where their cultivation is almost the sole industry. They require little attention, and are highly remunerative, being rich in oil and of a good flavour.

The output of nuts doubled between 1903 and 1909, the trees having been improved by grafting, and the increase was continued up to 1914. The yield in 1913 was 48,240 tons. In dry years the output decreases. The distribution of the nut harvest in 1912 was as follows:—

	Tons.
Trebizond and the district to the east	8,330
Kerasund	13,320
Tireboli and Elevi	6,660
Ordu	4,440
	32,750

*Tobacco*¹ is the chief product of economic importance. It is grown in all parts of Armenia, but the best qualities and greatest quantities are cultivated in the Samsun, Platana, and Trebizond districts. Two kinds are grown. The Samsun-Bafra variety, with small but very aromatic leaves, commands a high price; the Trebizond-Platana variety has large leaves and a bright colour, but its market price is much lower.

The output of tobacco from 1910 to 1913 was as follows:—

	Tons.
1910	1,550
1911	2,340
1912	2,700
1913	1,540

The smaller output in 1910 and 1913 was due to dry weather, which reduces the quantity of the crop, although it improves its quality.

The tobacco industry employs four large firms at Alexandria (Egypt), Trebizond, and Platana.

¹ See also below, p. 70.

Vegetables, fruit, and vines.—Vegetables of all kinds and all European fruits grow abundantly throughout Armenia. The white haricot bean of Trebizond has an excellent reputation on the European market. It is chiefly grown at Trebizond, Platana, and Ordu, and is the only vegetable exported. Vineyards are general and wine is made in all the vilayets for local consumption. The best grapes grow in the Van district, where wine and brandy are made on a small scale, with good promise for future development. Of late years there has been a small export to Europe of dried fruits, especially raisins, and of almonds and apricot stones from Diarbekr and Mamuret ul-Aziz. The orchards of Sivas vilayet export their fruit to Constantinople, but the trade is much hampered by the slowness of caravan transport. Rize was once noted for its orange crops, but the cultivation was diminishing before 1914, owing to bad weather.

Asphodels are grown for the sake of their roots, which are made into a shoemaker's polish called *tcherish*.

Flax and hemp are grown in the neighbourhood of Van and Erzerum. The normal annual output of linseed in Erzerum vilayet is from 1,000 to 1,500 tons.

Gall-nuts are collected from the stunted oaks of the Kurdish hills.

Gums, especially gum tragacanth, grow wild in the vilayets of Diarbekr and Trebizond. Gum tragacanth is brought down by Kurds from the hills and sold for export to Europe.

Madder is grown round Mush and Bitlis and is used for native dyes.

Opium is largely grown in the vilayet of Mamuret ul-Aziz and to a much less extent in Sivas. The crop from the Malatia district gives the highest percentage of morphia.

Sesame is grown in the neighbourhood of Diarbekr and Mardin.

Valonea was formerly grown for export, but its cultivation appears to be declining.

Yellow-berries are used by the natives for dyeing and are also exported.

Yunga, a kind of lucerne, is grown near Sivas.

Animal Products, Cattle and Sheep Rearing.—The raising of enormous flocks of sheep and goats on the mountain slopes and of large herds of cattle in the lower districts (chiefly in Erzerum vilayet) forms the chief industry of the nomad and semi-nomad Kurds, and was the principal source of prosperity of the Diarbekr, Van, Bitlis and Erzerum districts. Many of the nomad Kurds go into Mesopotamia to find pasture for their herds in the winter, while others come down to Armenian villages in the plains. Years ago the Turkish Government quartered them upon Armenian villages in return for payment of the *Kishlak* or "winter quarters" tax. This custom is urged by the Kurds as a justification for their winter raids.

Both goats' and sheep's milk is used for making *ghi*, a clarified butter, and goats' hair is used by the Kurds for tent-making. In Diarbekr the Angora goat is reared for the sake of mohair, which, together with wool, forms a valuable export of the vilayet.

In 1906 Van was said to contain over 3,000,000 sheep, but their number has since been much reduced. Every spring merchants from Constantinople, Syria, and Egypt visited the Diarbekr and Bitlis districts and made large purchases of sheep and goats, which they took by road to their destination. Erzerum cattle go to Trebizond for the Constantinople market.

A good breed of *horses* has from ancient times been reared on the pastures of the Armenian plateau, but of late years the export has been inconsiderable.

Buffaloes are reared in the lower stretches of the Tigris and a few *camels* are found in Diarbekr vilayet.

Mules are used as pack animals, especially in the hilly districts.

The live-stock of Diarbekr before the war was estimated to be approximately as follows:—

Buffaloes	8,000
Camels	2,000
Cattle	20,000
Donkeys	40,000
Goats	330,000
Horses	40,000
Mules	23,000
Sheep	815,000

Poultry rearing is an important industry in the vilayet of Trebizond. One of the chief centres is Fatza. The eggs are a valuable article of export, about 20,000,000 being sent annually to Samsun for shipping. The Trebizond egg is of small size, but this defect could be removed by a better choice of hens and by better feeding.

Honey. Apiculture flourishes in Erzerum, Mamuret ul-Aziz and Diarbekr. The excellent honey is all consumed locally, but wax is exported. In Van vilayet wild honey is carefully collected by the peasants and frozen for market into stiff white blocks.

Silk. Sericulture was increasing steadily in the vilayets of Diarbekr and Mamuret ul-Aziz before the war. In Diarbekr a large number of mulberry trees had been planted, and the pests which had brought the silk industry to a standstill for so long had been successfully combated. Sericulture was also being successfully initiated in the vilayets of Trebizond and Sivas before 1914. Mulberry plantations had been made at Erzingan, Gumush-Khane, Ordu and Trebizond, and plans were laid for plantations at Baiburt and Rize. Amasia was the most productive centre, its output in cocoons being 200,000 kg. in 1910 and 250,000 kg. in 1911. Other small centres were Charbamba, Bafra and Tokat.

(b) Methods of Cultivation

Armenia, in common with the rest of the Turkish Empire, still employs primitive methods of cultivation. The farmer is satisfied with a wooden plough, a team of oxen and buffaloes, a sickle for reaping, and a primitive threshing machine. In the vilayet of Trebizond even the native plough is little used, the cultivators breaking their ground with a two-pronged heavy fork, which is actually more efficacious.

In the cultivation of cereals the custom is to plough the ground, to sow broadcast, and then to leave the fields to the effects of sun, rain, and wind. No hoeing is done, and no manure is used. When the crop is ripe, in July, it is reaped with the sickle, about 12 inches of stalk being left, and after remaining in stooks for two or three days is thrown on the threshing floors. These are platforms of beaten earth, about 14 yards in diameter, where the corn is bruised and cut up by a wooden implement studded with flints, which resembles a rude sledge, and is drawn by oxen. The broken stalks, *saman* (the *bhoussa* of India), serve as fodder for cattle; the grain, winnowed by the simple method of throwing it up in the air to rid it of chaff, is ready for the mill and for storing. The fields are sown for two years in succession, and then left fallow for two years. Alluvial lands are ploughed deep by means of a heavy wooden plough, often drawn by as many as 20 oxen and buffaloes.

Wheat is sown in September as well as in the spring. It shoots before the snow falls, is protected by the snow during winter, and makes early and strong growth in the spring. This wheat gives better and earlier crops than the spring-sown wheat.

For the opium crop the ground, after being deeply ploughed, is repeatedly hoed, a process considered by the peasant equivalent to the use of manure. The ground lies fallow for three years between two sowings.

Tobacco is sown in April from seed collected the previous autumn. The young plants need careful rearing in well-manured beds until they are 6 inches high, when they are planted out in lightly tilled fields. The harvest begins in June and continues until the end of August. The upper leaves, known as *doruke*, which are picked last, produce the finest quality of tobacco.

Filberts are grown from shoots, which need a light loam and a dry subsoil, and are planted in clumps of seven in the autumn. The shrubs bear at four years, and are most productive at about eight years, when the annual yield of each is from 16 to 24 lbs. of nuts; they cease to bear at 20 years. The nuts are of three kinds, almond shaped, pointed, and round. Of these the first are the most valuable, the last the most numerous. The nuts are sorted by revolving screens, broken by stone mills and dried in the sun. The shelling effects a saving of 50 per cent. on freight and employs several thousand people for six months.

In the vilayets of Bitlis and Diarbekr a demand for agricultural implements of a simple kind was appearing before the war, but the purchases were on a very small scale. In the Erzerum district merchants had begun to import implements from Russia and the United States.

The Agricultural Department had established a model farm seven miles from Erzerum, and a model dairy farm near Trebizond. For the first-named they imported in 1911 a British steam threshing machine and a straw chopping machine, but without a competent engineer the machines could not be kept in proper repair.

A demand for modern agricultural implements in the interior would certainly follow on the opening up of communications and the creation of markets for the produce of the plateau. The Armenian is a good cultivator, industrious, progressive, and intelligent, and would take readily to improved methods had he an incentive to grow more than suffices for his needs.

In 1911 the Government founded at Gumush-Khane an institute for instruction in sericulture.

Irrigation.—The need for a system of irrigation is especially felt in those districts where a super-abundance of water in the spring is followed by a drought in summer. Various schemes have been proposed from time to time, but lack of energy on the part of the Government, lack of capital, and the indifference of the inhabitants have prevented their execution.

The gardens round Van are irrigated by water-cuts, or by underground water-courses called *karez*, the water supply being drawn from two small mountain streams and a canal which connects with the Khishab river.

The marshy plains of Mush and Bulanik, fertile regions producing an especially good variety of wheat, have aroused the interest of foreign enterprise. A hydrographical commission surveyed the Mush plain in 1910 with a view to using the waters of the Euphrates for irrigation, and a concession is said to have been granted to a foreign company, but no work was undertaken. In the same year a Government engineer was employed to survey the plain of Erzingan, but here again no irrigation works were attempted. In 1913 the local administrative council of the vilayet of Erzerum was prepared to grant a concession for a scheme to regularise the flow of the Euphrates at the head-waters with the idea of creating a reserve for the summer, but the necessary capital was not forthcoming, even for the preliminary survey.

(c) *Forestry*

Afforestation is very little practised in the Turkish Empire. The Armenian forests, except in the Trebizond vilayet, have long since been cut down for timber. Goats browse all over the uplands, and, together with the charcoal burners, effectually prevent the growth of anything higher than scrub. Wood is so scarce that *tezek* (dried manure) and dry thistles are used as fuel in the villages.

Little or no improvement in the administration of Turkish provinces has taken place since 1903¹, so that presumably the timber resources of Armenia are now considerably less than were described in that year. Particulars were as follows:—

Vilayet of Erzerum.—In the west of the vilayet denudation is less complete than in the east, a few forests still existing in the less populous districts. Throughout Bayazid sanjak and central Erzerum there are no trees except a few poplar and willow plantations, carefully protected for building purposes. The cazas of Terjan Rhinous and Passin contain a few scrub-woods which are used for fuel. The city of Erzerum obtains oak from the Kop and Massat ranges near Baiburt, and deal from the cazas of Tortum and Nariman. The pine woods of Ispir and Kiskin are rapidly dwindling, as also are the oak woods of Kighi, though less rapidly. Erzingan obtained in 1903 good supplies from the mountains of Palumer and Refahie, where there are thirteen forests of considerable extent.

Vilayet of Trebizond.—The following areas were under forest in 1903:—

	Acres.
Trebizond District	330,110
Tireboli	154,210
Kerasund	206,950
Samsun	219,030
Lazistan	269,000
Gumush-Khane,,	225,000
	1,404,300

Two steam saw-mills, in which British capital was interested, were at work in the Kerasund district in 1903.

The trees of the Trebizond vilayet are the ordinary deciduous varieties and pines.

Vilayet of Sivas.—A few forests were still to be

¹ The latest information available is contained in the *Report on Mining Industries and Forestry in Turkey in 1903.*

found in Sivas vilayet in 1903, in the caza of Ladik and the sanjaks of Amasia, Tokat, and Karahissar, but they were being rapidly destroyed.

The same process of denudation has gone on in Diarbekr, Van, and Bitlis vilayets. Most of the larger towns, such as Sairt and Bitlis, have to import firewood from a distance. The fact that houses, when not of stone, are generally built of mud, is due to the scarcity of building timber.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The Turkish system of land tenure is described in *Turkey in Europe*, No. 16 of this series. The Turkish Government does not recognise the right of the Christian Church in Armenia to hold land, and consequently the Armenian Church has often been dispossessed of its property, which in any case must be held by trustees.

(3) FISHERIES

Throughout Armenia good trout and other fish abound in the streams and rivers, but the catch is consumed locally. Sturgeon, often of enormous size, are caught in the Araks and the Yeshil Irmak, and are made into fish-pastes for local consumption, while their roes are used for caviare, as in Russia.

In Lake Van is found a small fish known as *darekh*, generically a mackerel but resembling a herring. These fish are caught in large numbers in spring at the mouths of the rivers flowing into the lake. They are salted and sold in neighbouring districts, but some are exported.

On the Black Sea coast porpoises are caught in large numbers, and from them the fishermen of Trebizond, Surmene, and Rize extract oil, which is exported in large quantities to France, Italy, Rumania, Bulgaria, Greece, and Turkey. Anchovies are the staple food of the poor in the vilayet of Trebizond, and at certain seasons the catch is so abundant that, in addition to

the large quantities exported to Constantinople and Europe, the fish is used as manure.

The revenues from fisheries are administered by the Imperial Ottoman Debt Council.

(4) MINERALS

Armenia is rich in mineral deposits. Many mines are known to exist, but very few are now being worked.

All mines are State controlled. The salt mines and deposits are under the administration of the Imperial Ottoman Debt Council, and their revenues form a State monopoly. Smuggling, however, takes place on a considerable scale. Mining laws are described in *Turkey in Europe*, No. 16 of this series.

Vilayet of Diarbekr.—The ancient copper-mines of Arghana Maden consist of a group of six mines, of which only three were working before the war. One was owned by natives of the district, the other two were leased to them by the State. From 1892 to 1911 the output of black copper amounted to 19,025 tons, the maximum output for one year being 1,502 tons in 1903. England took the bulk of this. Lack of capital and local deforestation have adversely affected the working of the mines. In 1895 Italian engineers attempted to apply the Manhess system, but without success, owing to lack of funds, and up to the outbreak of war the working was of the most primitive character, the ore being extracted by Kurdish labourers with handpicks. Since 1914 the mines have been served by a Decauville railway to Diarbekr, and more scientific methods have probably been adopted.

Iron, silver-lead, gypsum, coal, chalk, lime, jet, and rock-crystal also exist in Diarbekr vilayet, and of these the iron, gypsum, lime, jet, and rock-crystal are worked by villagers for local use.

This vilayet has only one deposit of salt, at Lijji.

Vilayet of Van.—Seams of coal exist at Seivan, Shattakh, Akchi-Chai, and Bashkala. At Bashkala the coal is partly exposed, and the seam is from 40 to 50 ft. thick.

Two lead mines, at Chukh and Julamerk, have been worked by the State to obtain material for the making of bullets. Between Bashkala and Kochannes, at Andanis in the Taurus, there are valuable State mines of orpiment (sulphide of arsenic). Iron, copper, and borax have been found. There is a silver-lead mine at Berko.

At Kordsot a rich deposit of petrol was worked for a time by a European concessionary, but his death brought the enterprise to an end.

The vilayet possesses a beautiful red granite, used in the past for building, and has quarries of lime, chalk, and gypsum of fine quality.

Gold mines, now abandoned, exist in the Shirwan Dagh, south of Lake Van.

Salt is found in the vilayet, but only in sufficient quantities for local needs.

Vilayet of Bitlis.—Here there is little known mineral wealth. The mountainous districts have hardly been prospected. Natives constantly report discoveries, but nothing is known of their value. In the Sassun district, west of Bitlis town, there are iron mines, now being worked by primitive methods. Copper, lead, and sulphur have been worked by natives at Sassun. Traces of gold and silver have been found at Sairt and Khairwan, and of iron and lead at Kharzan.

The vilayet has salt deposits, fed by springs, and wells of salt water. These suffice to supply not only the whole vilayet of Bitlis, but also the vilayets of Diarbekr, Mamuret ul-Aziz, Mosul, and Van. The salt forms in pans, by evaporation, in 8 or 10 days. All the work connected with it is done by Kurds, in the primitive manner of their ancestors. Rock salt occurs frequently in the vilayet, but the deposits are quite unexploited. The richest salt mines are at Mush, which is said to have sufficient salt to supply all Europe and Asia.

Vilayet of Erzerum.—This vilayet is fairly rich in minerals. Between 1908 and 1910 many *permis de*

recherche were granted, but in 1910 lignite and copper mines only were being worked.

Lignite of poor quality was worked at Kheneke, Sivishli, Kukurtlu, and Vartik. The output in 1910 was as follows:—

	Tons
Kheneke (caza of Nariman)	1,300
Sivishli (caza of Erzerum)	860
Kukurtlu (caza of Erzerum)	120
Vartik (caza of Terjan)	86
	2,366

This material can be used only in coal stoves, which were being imported from Trebizond for the purpose, in consequence of the high price of wood and *tezek* (dried manure) as fuel.

Coal measures are undoubtedly extensive in Erzerum. In addition to those already mentioned, the deposits of Kara Khan and Hortuk, in the caza of Ispir, were long worked in primitive fashion, and there is a better bed of lignite at Sivishli, 5 miles north-east of Erzerum. At Lizghiaf, in the Tortum caza, coal has been found of much better quality than that of Kara Khan.

A concession for lignite mining over an area of 250 acres near Baiburt was granted in 1911 to six local traders, but the mine is not thought likely to be productive.

Copper was being mined at Konkez, Penek, and Gobal Kom. The output of copper in 1910 was as follows:—

	Cwt.
Konkez (caza of Kiskin)	15
Penek (caza of Terjan)	15
Gobal Kom (caza of Passin)	15
	45

Diadin has sulphur springs which deposit rock containing 18 per cent. of sulphur, and sulphur mines

exist at Dauta, $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Diadin. Sulphur also exists at Bayazid.

At Ilija, near Erzerum, there are beds of diatomite, which yield a large percentage of silica.

Silver exists in the north, and iron at Kighi.

The vilayet has many salt springs and pans, and has also mines of rock salt.

Vilayet of Trebizond.—Of the 75 mines known in the vilayet of Trebizond, 21 are held under *firman*s granting exploiting powers, and 43 *permis de recherche* have been issued for the rest. Copper, silver-lead, zinc, iron, and manganese are the chief deposits. Though labour until the Balkan War was cheap and easily procured, difficulties in obtaining fuel and lack of communications arrested development. The output appears to have been chiefly from the surface ore. The copper was used for the local industry of the coppersmiths, whose number diminished in proportion as the imports of modern hardware increased.

The following mines were working spasmodically:—

Arlana.—Silver-lead; said to be rich; lying idle in 1913 owing to dispute about ownership.

Halisuri.—Yielded 54 tons of red copper ore in 1902.

Kalanema, Elehu, and Fol.—Copper pyrites, argentiferous galena, and zinc-blende.

Gumush-Khane.—Silver (argentiferous galena); closed owing to deforestation.

The firm of D. Sebuch & Th. Swan held seven concessions for copper and silver-lead in 1903.

Zinc was being mined at Ma Pavri in the Lazistan district in 1901, when the output was 1,700 tons.

Manganese was mined at Pir Aziz, near Kerasund, in 1901, the output being 470 tons. It also occurs near Rize and Surmene, but not in sufficiently large quantities to repay exploitation.

Kissarna and Surmene have mineral water springs; the waters are bottled and sent to Constantinople.

Vilayet of Mamuret ul-Aziz.—This vilayet possesses few mineral deposits of importance except the silver mines at Keban Maden, abandoned in 1885. The Ottoman Government, in their anxiety to continue the working, had tried to modernise the system, and had established four American furnaces, but when the supply of fuel from the forests of the neighbourhood had been completely exhausted, the mines had to be closed down. Galleries of 4-5 miles, connected by galleries of 2-2½ miles, are evidence of the extent of the workings. The resources of the mines are said to be practically inexhaustible.

Silver-lead mines in the caza of Palu were working in 1903.

Coal exists at Palu, but the deposit lies in a hollow and is difficult of access. There are also coal-seams at Komur Khan near the Euphrates, and there is a coal mine at Tchimich Kezek on the banks of the Menzur Chai, a tributary of the Euphrates. This mine, 37 miles from Keban Maden, might profitably be exploited in the future for the benefit of the silver mines, to which it could be linked by means of the river.

Gold has been found near Kharput.

There is one deposit of salt, at Bulanik, south-west of Malatia.

Vilayet of Sivas.—A rich mine of alum used to be worked by the State near Karahissar. After local requirements had been satisfied, an export to other provinces of the value of £T 2,000 was still possible in 1903. No later information is available.

Copper occurs near Sivas town, at Yildiz Zara, Karahissar, Amasia, and Tokat. A very favourable analyst's report was made on the Tokat mine in 1903. Permits were granted more than 10 years ago, but nothing was done.

Silver-lead deposits mixed with antimony occur near Zara and Karahissar. An important deposit was worked in 1903 by the Asia Minor Mining Co., a British company, at Lidjessi, and another at Gemin Bel in the caza of Enderes, but no reliable later

information is available. The State worked unprofitably a deposit at Hadji Keui, in Amasia sanjak.

Iron deposits of good quality exist between Zara and Karahissar, and iron pyrites is found near Sivas and in the sanjaks of Tokat and Amasia.

Coal of fair quality occurs near Karahissar and Zara and Zile, and coal of an inferior quality at Kardashlar. Lignite has been found at Amasia.

Asbestos of very good quality is found near Zara, excellent hydraulic limestone near Hamidie, and marble at Amasia.

Large and rich deposits of arsenic are found in the caza of Zara.

The vilayet has numerous salt springs, which supply the whole vilayet and also adjacent sanjaks. The salt water is collected in reservoirs and passed into pans, where the salt is deposited. Near Tuz Hissar a rock salt mine was discovered in 1889. This is known to be rich, but is only superficially worked.

(5) MANUFACTURES

Modern manufacturing methods are very little known in Armenia. Various small industries are carried on in the open bazaars and at home, mainly to supply local needs. There is a small export of native cotton cloth from Trebizond, chiefly to Constantinople. Some native-woven cloth is also sent to Alexandria, and considerable quantities to Aleppo and Mosul.

Textiles.—A weaving mill for cotton cloths was established in 1911 at Trebizond by a British subject; but, though the output found a ready sale, the business did not thrive, and in 1913 the mill was idle for the greater part of the year.

A characteristic and widespread textile industry is the weaving on hand-looms of *manussa*, a native cotton cloth, which is made into the light native garments worn at Aleppo, Diarbekr, and Mosul. The special centres of this industry are Arabkir, Marsovan, Amasia, Trebizond, and Zile. Native cotton cloths are also woven at Van (from raw cotton imported from

Persia), at Tokat (printed cotton cloth), at Erzingan (where Turkish towelling is a speciality), at Amasia (from English yarn), and at Mezre and Trebizond. A few native hand-loom weavers weave cloth and mohair at Van and Shattakh. In Erzerum vilayet native cotton is woven in the cazas of Ova, Kighi, Khinis and Keskhine. A coarse hand-woven white cloth called *ketan* is woven at Rize and Trebizond, and to a smaller extent at Mush, for native shirting; it is also sent to Aleppo and Egypt, the export being about 100,000 pieces annually. *Ketan* is sometimes dyed red, and this kind is made especially at Mush and Bitlis. A strong coarse cotton cloth is made on hand-loom in houses at Sivas.

More limited in area, but more valuable, is the thriving silk industry of Diarbekr, where native cocoons are reeled and the produce woven. This industry long declined on account of pests affecting the silkworms, but these have been overcome and a brisk revival has taken place. Silk goods are made to a much smaller extent at Van, Mezre, Trebizond, and Erzingan. Velvet goods are made at Van.

Woollen goods are hand-woven in the cazas of Ova, Kighi, Khinis and Keskhine, and there is a small woollen factory at Trebizond. At Shattakh, in the Van vilayet, and in the Keskhine district, Persian shawls are successfully imitated; they are woven from the fleecy underwool of the sheep. Round Geurun a mixed wool and cotton product known as *shal* is made. This is much in demand locally, and began to be exported in 1907. A finer kind of *shal*, made from goats' mohair, is woven at Van.

Linen cloth is woven at Trebizond, and excellent fishing-nets are also made there and exported to Russia and Rumania.

Carpet-making is a widespread home industry. The productions of many districts—Kara Kilissa, Tortum, Baiburt, Terjan, Diadin, Diarbekr, Van—are excellent and artistic. The town of Sivas is also a centre for carpet-making. It has a branch of the Oriental

Carpet Manufactures, Ltd., of Smyrna, originally Italian, but now a British company with a capital of £600,000. In 1910 this company paid a dividend of 20 per cent., and it has entered into association with the Persian Carpet Co. Its carpets are much in request in Europe and America. The Kurdish women make rugs and mats, known as *kellim*, generally of bad quality.

The use of German aniline dyes has latterly gained ground, displacing the native vegetable dyes, with very detrimental results to the beauty and durability of the textiles.

Embroidery is a winter occupation of the women. The work is done on wool or linen in silk and tinsel, and shows great artistic skill. For purposes of export it is customary to use the fabric of the country to which the work is to be sent, instead of the hand-woven native cloths. In certain districts the dress of the people is covered with embroidery. Van is especially noted for its embroidery and tapestry.

Stocking-knitting is a considerable industry at Sivas.

Metallurgy and metal-work.—Tokat has foundries for refining copper from the Arghana Maden mines.

The Armenians excel as workers in metals. The coppersmiths and ironworkers of the Trebizond and Erzerum vilayets in particular are very skilled craftsmen, as are also the silver filigree workers of Trebizond; the latter, however, were fast disappearing before 1914, their work being ousted by cheap European jewellery. Erzerum had at one time a thriving rifle industry, but this was prohibited by the Turkish Government in the 'nineties. The Kurds are good swordsmiths and skilful makers of modern firearms. Diarbekr coppersmiths make utensils from the produce of the Arghana Maden mines.

Tanning and leather-work form an important industry in the Erzerum vilayet. Erzerum and Erzingan possess tanneries; shoes, saddlery, and yellow

leather goods are made throughout the vilayet, and, to a smaller extent, throughout Armenia. A tanning industry was being established in Van vilayet in 1911. The preparation of furs is an industry of Erzerum vilayet.

China and glass works exist at Diarbekr, and Mush has a special pottery industry. Rough pottery for local use is made in the bazaars, but finer goods are imported.

Dye-works.—Diarbekr has a dye-works, and madder is prepared at Bitlis and Mush. Natural dyes are being superseded by imported anilines.

Linseed oil refineries exist at Van, Erzerum and Erzingan, the oil being used for lighting.

Distilleries.—Amasia has flourishing brandy distilleries. Wine and brandy are also made in the Van district.

Soap is made in Trebizond and also at Van from the saline deposits of the lake.

There are *flour mills* at Diarbekr, Zara, and elsewhere; those at Sivas and Amasia are worked by turbines, and water-power is used by many.

The preparation of *jerked beef* (*pasderma*) is an industry of Erzerum vilayet. The meat is dried in the sun, and there is a small export to other Turkish provinces.

Lime-works have been started at Trebizond, but have not attained any great success or threatened the importation of lime from Marseilles.

Slate-works were about to be started at Trebizond with Turkish capital in 1912.

(6) POWER

Armenia possesses peculiar natural advantages for the development of water power by means of turbines. All the rivers have a considerable fall, but the fall is not uniform, long open and almost level reaches alternating with narrow gorges down which the water rushes to the next step of the plateau. By damming the heads of the gorges reservoirs could be formed and

the great inequality in the flow of water before and after the autumn rains be equalized; and, owing to the great elevation of the plateau, the same river might be capable of supporting power stations at different stages of its course. In addition to the production of power, such control of the rivers would make local irrigation schemes possible and might become of great importance for the irrigation of Mesopotamia.

Lake Van is an immense reservoir of power. The edge of the southern watershed is in some places only a few yards from the lake and the fall is very steep. Power could be obtained by tunnels bored through the rim of the watershed up to the bed of the lake.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) DOMESTIC

(a) *Towns, Markets, &c.*

For *Trebizond* and *Samsun*, see above, under Ports, pp. 37, 40.

Amasia is the centre of one of the richest districts of Asia Minor, producing excellent wheat, wine, tobacco and opium. It is also of industrial importance (*cf.* pp. 61, 62, 64).

Arabkir, an industrial centre, also exports fruit, especially raisins.

Baiburt is an important agricultural market for western Erzerum and the outlet for a fertile plain.

Bashkala was formerly a thriving town, with an important weekly market, at which in addition to the local merchants of Sairt, Erzerum and Amadia, there might be found traders from Aleppo and Mosul, importers of European goods from Constantinople, and caravans of grain and fruit from Persia and Russia.

Bitlis is of very little commercial importance, owing to its inconvenient situation and to political unrest. It was formerly a market for the wheat, barley, and millet of the Bulanik district, and for fruit from

Sairt, but even before 1914 there was a tendency for these districts to obtain their supplies from Mosul and Diarbekr.

Chambashi is an agricultural and distributing centre.

Charshembe is an agricultural centre, and possesses a caviare industry.

Diarbeker.—This important town is the seat of Government for the vilayet and also the trading centre of the surrounding vilayets. Cereals, fruit, flocks, and produce of all kinds enter the market. Exports for overseas go either to Samsun or to Alexandretta for shipment, but in the absence of accurate statistics it is not possible to indicate the division of trade between the routes. The copper of the vilayet takes the Samsun road to be refined at Tokat. Cattle and sheep, the latter from the Dersim country, from Erzerum, Bitlis, Van, Mush, Jezire, and Palu, pass on to the great market of nations at Aleppo, as also do hides and skins, wool, mohair from Angora sheep reared in the Jezire district, and clarified butter (*ghi*). Wheat is carried by *keleks* (see p. 34) down the Tigris or by caravan to Mosul and Baghdad. Trade in silkworms' eggs, cocoons and raw silk reeled in the town had revived greatly before the war.

Erzerum, a town of great strategic importance, is the chief centre of the sheep trade, supplying Diarbekr for the Aleppo market. It lies in an undeveloped grain-producing district.

Erzingan is an important industrial centre (*cf.* pp. 62-4).

Kharput (*Mamuret ul-Aziz*) carries on a transit trade between the north and Diarbekr in cotton and cotton goods, cereals, silk and wine.

Malatia is an important opium centre and a trading station on the route from Sivas to Samsun.

Marsovan is an agricultural market town and the chief collecting place for the yellow-berry.

Mush is the centre of a fertile wheat-producing plain.

Sivas is the centre for a well-cultivated corn-producing country, and has a market for well-bred Circassian horses from Azizie.

Tokat has an important copper-smelting industry, and is also a market for tobacco, maize and fruit.

Van is the chief agricultural market of its vilayet. It is to some extent a manufacturing centre (*cf.* pp. 61-4), but its importance in this respect has declined.

(b) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

The Banque Impériale Agricole, which is controlled by the Minister of Agriculture and has branches at Sivas and Van, makes loans to farmers at 6 per cent. interest. Before its foundation agriculturists borrowing money had to pay 30 or 40 per cent. interest to usurers.

(c) *Foreign, especially British, Interests*

British undertakings in Armenia have been limited to various small mining and manufacturing enterprises, which have had little success, and in many cases had been abandoned before 1914. Great Britain and France had some years ago almost a monopoly of the Erzerum and Trebizond trade, but have now lost this position, in spite of the excellent French shipping services from Marseilles to Samsun and Trebizond. Moreover, Great Britain even before the war was losing her leading position in the supply of cotton goods, &c., for the following reasons: (i) her reluctance to grant long credits; (ii) her failure to meet the demand for cheap quality goods; and (iii) her lack of direct intercourse with Armenian buyers by means of commercial travellers. French capital was interesting itself in the construction and control of an extensive railway and road system (*cf.* pp. 32, 36).

Down to 1914 German influence had not penetrated Armenia to any great extent. Germany was, however, looking to the section of the Baghdad Railway which

falls within the country to give her a footing in the southern part of Diarbekr vilayet, and was projecting the encouragement of cereal and cotton cultivation in that district in connection with her plans to exploit the produce of Mesopotamia (*cf. Mesopotamia*, No. 63 of this series, pp. 125-6). She was making excellent progress as a supplier of imports, and much slower progress as a buyer of exports. Russia's interests in Armenia have been chiefly strategic and commercial. She was formerly one of the chief suppliers of Armenian imports, but she was not making so great progress as Austria-Hungary and Germany. Austria-Hungary was progressing very rapidly both as supplier and purchaser. Italy's commercial relations with Armenia suffered in consequence of her war with Turkey. Belgium was a large supplier of imports, and the United States a large buyer of Armenian exports. Turkey was on the whole maintaining her position as the chief supplier of Armenian imports, the fall in 1912 being abnormal and due to the Balkan War; but she was yearly taking a smaller proportion of the exports.

(2) FOREIGN

(a) *Exports*

Details of the exports for 1912 from the Black Sea ports are given in Table I of the Appendix (p. 80). The following tables show for 1909, 1910, and 1912 (i) the gross export to Turkey and to foreign countries; (ii) the export to Turkey; and (iii) the foreign export exclusive of Turkey. It will be seen that the percentage of the exports sent to Turkey declined from 31 in 1909 to 26 in 1910 and 17 in 1912.

(i) Gross Export Figures, including Persian Transit
Trade

	1909	1910	1912
	£	£	£
Samsun	1,807,560	1,979,730	1,699,530
Trebizond	579,720	798,050	644,340
Kerasund	323,300	544,470	550,920
Ordu	82,600	133,770	131,740
Rize	24,230	26,160	19,120
Tireboli	18,700	33,300	30,050
Totals	2,836,110	3,515,480	3,075,700

The Persian transit trade in 1909, 1910, and 1912 was probably considerably under £20,000 in value.

(ii) Exports to Turkey

	1909	1910	1912
	£	£	£
Samsun	540,030	598,420	331,340
Trebizond	300,150	228,200	107,980
Kerasund	19,430	16,000	46,830
Ordu	11,470	44,210	42,850
Rize	19,500	20,730	11,750
Tireboli	250	9,160	8,000
Totals	890,830	916,720	548,750

(iii) Exports to Foreign Countries

	1909	1910	1912
	£	£	£
Samsun	1,267,530	1,381,310	1,368,190
Trebizond	279,570	569,850	532,360
Kerasund	303,870	528,470	508,090
Ordu	71,130	89,560	88,890
Rize	4,730	5,430	7,370
Tireboli	18,450	24,140	22,050
Totals	1,945,280	2,598,760	2,526,950

The chief countries of destination apart from Turkey were:—

—	1909	1910	1912
	£	£	£
United States ..	374,810	651,730	655,310
Austria-Hungary ..	455,090	698,100	648,590
France ..	294,710	418,760	424,250
Germany ..	253,850	322,130	303,990
Russia ..	134,970	223,830	214,950
United Kingdom ..	71,200	87,630	118,070
Italy ..	42,650	4,830	28,460
Belgium ..	16,990	18,200	17,500

The export of *tobacco* is the most important source of Armenian wealth, for prices have steadily risen, and the quantities exported have also increased. The distribution of the export in 1912 and 1913 was as follows:—

—	1912	1913
	Tons.	Tons.
Alexandria	1,060	542
Holland	374	160
Germany	173	664
Great Britain, Aden, Cyprus and Malta	46	69
Other countries, chiefly Austria and the United States	22	48

There is a good deal of smuggling. The chief centre of export is Samsun.

Filberts.—In 1910, 10 per cent. of the export of filberts went to Turkey and 15 per cent. to Egypt. The remaining 75 per cent. went to the United States, Italy, France, Austria, Germany, &c. By 1912 Germany had increased her import to 1,853 tons out of the total of 3,895 tons exported. The centres of export are Trebizond, Kerasund, Ordu, and Tireboli.

Sheep and goats.—The sheep export from Trebizond to Constantinople for slaughter by no means represented the total export, for large flocks of sheep and goats went from Diarbekr vilayet by caravan to Aleppo, and some of these would eventually be exported from Alexandretta. The value of the exports from Erzerum, Diarbekr, and Van vilayets in 1912 and 1913 was:—

—		Erzerum.	Diarbekr.	Van.	Totals.
		£	£	£	£
1912	...	150,000	90,000	54,000	294,000
1913	...	200,000	150,000	63,000	413,000

Cattle.—Erzerum exported a value of £50,000 in 1912, and £75,000 in 1913.

Besides the *hides and skins* shipped from the ports some went by caravan to Aleppo, partly for Turkey and partly for foreign countries. The sheep, lamb, and goat skins exported from Trebizond in 1912 went chiefly to the United States and France. The value of the hides and skins exported from Erzerum, Diarbekr, and Mamuret ul-Aziz vilayets in 1912 and 1913 was:—

----				Erzerum.	Diarbekr.	Mamuret ul-Aziz.
				£	£	£
1912	22,200	32,500	31,500
1913	23,000	39,000	32,200

Wool and mohair were exported partly by Samsun and Trebizond, and partly by caravan to Aleppo and Basra. The value exported from Diarbekr vilayet in 1913 was £70,000.

Butter or ghi was sent from Diarbekr vilayet to Aleppo, and about half of it eventually reached Egypt.

The export from Diarbekr vilayet in 1913 was £60,000 in value.

Opium, flour, cereals, yellow-berries, and black-berries, and most of the *cocoons* were exported from Samsun only. The export of *valonea* from Diarbekr vilayet amounted to £13,000 in value in 1908, but the trade has since ceased. Similarly, the export of *walnut whorls and walnut-wood* had almost entirely ceased by 1914. On the other hand, *porpoise oil* was being exported in increasing quantities to the Balkan countries and Turkey.

Eggs.—It was estimated that 50,000 cases of eggs were exported in 1911 from Samsun; 15,000 from Trebizond; 9,000 from Kerasund; and a smaller number from Ordu. The egg export of Trebizond is capable of great development.

White haricot beans are a promising article of export. The chief countries of destination are Turkey, Egypt, the United States, France, Spain, and Greece.

(b) Imports

Details of the imports at the Black Sea ports for 1912 are given in Table II of the Appendix (p. 81). The following tables show for the years 1909, 1910, and 1912 (i) the gross import; (ii) the import from Turkey; and (3) the import from foreign countries, excluding Turkey:—

(i) Gross Import Figures, including Persian Transit Trade

—	Samsun.	Trebizond.†	Kerasund.	Ordu, Rize and Tireboli	Totals.
	£	£	£	£	£
1909 ...	950,000	1,352,450	226,900	318,430	2,847,780
1910 ...	1,124,040	1,372,750	243,600	343,260	3,083,650
1912 ...	1,089,480	1,541,730	325,800	332,650	3,289,660

The Persian transit trade in 1912 was estimated at about £160,000; statistics for 1909 and 1910 are not available.

(ii) Imports from Turkey

—	Samsun.	Trebizond.	Kerasund	Ordu, Rize and Tireboli.	Totals.
	£	£	£	£	£
1909 ...	346,400	400,220	135,400	164,040	1,046,060
1910 ...	352,720	339,770	125,130	167,880	985,500
1912 ...	364,070	559,180	179,050	163,280	1,265,580

Turkey's share in the supply of Armenia's imports has on the whole increased. This was especially the case at Trebizond in 1912. The figures for 1913, which are available only for the port of Trebizond, show that Turkey improved her position as chief supplier to that port, contributing £515,189 out of the total value of £839,349. Her percentages of the total imports were approximately 36·7 in 1909, 32 in 1910, and 37·1 in 1912.

(iii) Imports from Foreign Countries

—	Samsun.	Trebizond.	Kerasund.	Ordu, Rize and Tireboli.	Totals.
	£	£	£	£	£
1909 ...	603,600	952,230	91,500	154,390	1,801,720
1910 ...	771,320	1,032,980	118,470	175,380	2,098,150
1912 ...	725,410	982,550	146,750	169,370	2,024,080

The chief countries of origin apart from Turkey were:—

	1909	1910	1912
	£	£	£
Austria-Hungary ...	284,290	437,910	454,490
Russia ...	437,390	446,910	429,470
United Kingdom ...	367,960	442,260	425,710
France ...	236,630	311,970	298,540
Germany ...	58,940	160,570	148,650
Belgium ...	61,010	101,220	93,710
Italy ...	207,470	61,590	91,350
United States ...	25,920	36,020	33,930
Other countries ...	122,110	99,700	48,230

It will be seen that Germany has made the most rapid progress in her exports to Armenia, having increased them from under £60,000 in 1909 to nearly £150,000 in 1912. Next to this Austria has made the most notable progress, ousting Russia and the United Kingdom in 1912 from their leading position in 1909 and 1910.

Cotton goods are imported chiefly at Trebizond. At the beginning of the century Great Britain was almost the only supplier of cotton textiles and yarns, but by 1912 Austria, Germany, Belgium, and Italy were all competing and securing a growing trade. In particular, *basen*, a cheap heavy-weight German cotton cloth, was gaining ground. In 1912, a bad import year, the decrease in the value of the import of British cotton goods amounted to £93,000. The growth of foreign competition in the cotton industry is, however, best shown by a comparison between the supplies of cotton goods at Trebizond in 1908 and 1912:—

	1908	1912
	£	£
From Great Britain ..	60,000*	119,400
„ Austria-Hungary ..	1,500	16,880
„ Belgium	500	8,280
„ Germany	800	6,600
„ Italy	6,800	5,440

* Plus a large proportion of the £81,700 supplied by Turkey.

If we include cotton yarn, we find that Great Britain supplied one-half of the total import at Trebizond; on the other hand, at Samsun she supplied only about one-ninth; at Kerasund about one-third; and at Ordu less than one-tenth.

Hardware and iron.—Before the war Great Britain supplied nearly all the large Samsun import, but Belgium and Germany chiefly supplied Trebizond. German-made goods, labelled “Made in England,” were appearing on the market.

Woollen goods.—France was the chief supplier. Great Britain supplied 19 per cent. of the total import at Trebizond in 1906, and 21 per cent. in 1912.

Sugar.—In 1912 at Trebizond Austria furnished three-fifths and France one-third (a great decrease). Russia and Egypt supplied the rest. Great Britain has been completely ousted from this trade.

Flour and cereals.—Russia was the chief supplier of flour and maize.

Petroleum.—Russia delivered three-quarters and Rumania one-quarter of the Trebizond import of 1912.

Other imports at Trebizond.—Great Britain was the chief supplier of soap; France had a monopoly in slates and hydraulic limestone; cement came half from France and half from Belgium; Germany supplied most of the china, half the enamel ware and three-quarters of the aniline dyes; Austria-Hungary sent most of the leather and leather goods. Russia and Germany were beginning to prove serious rivals to Great Britain in the supply of raw copper for manufacture at Trebizond.

(c) *Persian Transit Trade*

Until 1906 a considerable volume of Persian exports and imports passed through Trebizond, but this trade has since greatly declined in consequence of internal troubles in Persia and of the improvement in communications between Russia and Persia. According to the British Consular Reports its value, imports and

exports together, was £1,006,060 in 1906, £459,140 in 1907, and £177,089 in 1908. No adequate British statistics are available after 1908. An Italian Consular Report on trade at Trebizond in 1910-14, estimates the average annual value of the Persian import *via* that port at £325,000 and of the export at £63,500, but these figures appear to be too large. This trade did not greatly benefit Armenia and its loss is of small importance.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

Turkish taxation falls much more heavily upon the Armenian than upon the Mohammedan population. Until 1908 the former paid a poll tax in respect of their exclusion, as Christians, from military service. Among the Kurds the large privileged class of Ashirat is liable neither to taxation nor military service, and it is doubtful if the Kurds in general pay any regular taxes. Serious abuses exist in the collection of the taxes, and both tax-farmers and Turkish officials extort large sums for their own benefit. In the districts most exposed to Kurdish oppression regular taxes are paid by the Armenians to the Kurds in addition to the State taxes or, less often, in substitution for them.

The chief Turkish tax is the tithe, which used to be collected in money when agricultural prices were low and in kind when they were high. Second in yield is the sheep tax, which is nominally a payment for the right of pasturage, all pasture lands being Government property. Other taxes are the road tax, the salt tax, the house tax (levied also on cattle sheds, sheep pens, &c.), the succession duty of 10 per cent., the emigration tax and taxes on hay, brushwood and the right to use *tezek* (dried manure) for fuel.

In 1913 the four chief taxes, *viz.*, tithe, sheep tax, road tax and salt tax, produced a total revenue of

£1,342,094 in the six vilayets of Erzerum, Bitlis, Diarbekr, Sivas, Mamuret ul-Aziz and Van, nearly two-thirds of this total being derived from the tithe and more than half the remainder from the sheep tax. The total Turkish expenditure in these vilayets in the same year was £1,405,268, distributed as follows: army, £633,707; finance, £225,747; Home Office, £220,740; gendarmerie, £176,326; education, £47,841; public works, £48,211; religious uses, £39,299; agriculture, £13,397. Detailed figures of revenue and expenditure for these vilayets will be found in Tables III and IV of the Appendix (p. 82). Statistics for Trebizond are unfortunately not available.

(2) *Banking*

The chief banks are:—

The Imperial Ottoman Bank, with branches at Trebizond, Samsun, Ordu, Sivas, Erzerum, Mezre, Van, Diarbekr, Bitlis and Kharput.

The Bank of Athens, with branches at Samsun, Amasia, Sivas.

The Banque de Salonique, with a branch at Samsun.

The Banque Impériale Agricole (p. 67), with branches at Sivas and Van.

(E) GENERAL REMARKS.

The existence of three races, of which the two more backward were always in coalition, actively or passively, against the more advanced, has been an all-important factor in the economic development of the distinctively Armenian and Kurdish vilayets, *i.e.*, Van, Bitlis, Diarbekr, and to a less extent Mamuret ul-Aziz, Sivas, and part of Erzerum. In Trebizond vilayet there were before the war no Kurds and comparatively few Armenians, so that the conditions found in varying degrees in all the other vilayets were not present there. The Kurds have in some places adopted sedentary modes of living; but, when Kurdish agricul-

turists are found in possession of well-tilled land, the inference is that they have taken over Armenian property. They have little idea of progressive agriculture, they despise shopkeeping, do not, as a rule, even grow fruit, and have no schools. The nomad and semi-nomad Kurds, of course, are still more backward; the rearing of herds, the making of *ghi*, the collecting of galls and gums, and the weaving of tents, rugs and shawls by the women, are their only occupations. They cut wood indiscriminately; and the wilder tribes have the nomad shepherd's hostility to villages and village life. Their military prowess and the supineness of the Turk have made them of more practical account than the Turks, who, if they were not State officials, used to occupy an intermediate position as agriculturists and small shopkeepers, less enterprising, intelligent and industrious than the Armenians. Therefore the transference in this almost purely agricultural country of more and more land from Armenian to Turk and Kurd has meant a gradual economic deterioration. Much land has fallen out of cultivation, or is cultivated greatly below its capacity, while among the Armenians themselves enterprise has been discouraged by the insecurity of life and property.

Apart from racial troubles, Armenia has suffered, in common with all Turkish provinces, from the stagnation produced by Turkish misrule. Schemes of development have not been wanting, but nearly all suffered shipwreck through lack of security, of communications, of capital and of any adequate economic incentive. Commercially the Armenians were long hampered by the decree forbidding them to travel abroad, which was abrogated only in 1908. While this was in operation Armenians could not get into direct touch with foreign suppliers, and were dependent on Constantinople and Aleppo agents, who granted them long credits.

Given political security, development of communications, and the influx of the necessary capital, Armenia might become a large exporter of cereals, fruit, wine

and silk, as she is already of tobacco, nuts, opium and eggs. It has been stated that the sugar-cane could be successfully grown. Owing to her water-power and to her sheep-rearing industry, she should be able to make herself self-supporting in respect, at any rate, of wool and woollen goods, and modern industrial enterprise should enable Erzerum to use part of her own flax for the manufacture of linen, instead of merely exporting linseed. As regards minerals, Armenia must always suffer from the shortage of a really useful coal, but with the improvement of communications something might be done in the more accessible localities. Afforestation schemes should form a part of any plans for the improvement of the country, in order to secure a supply of fuel and building material, and also to maintain the fertility of the soil.

TABLE II.—IMPORTS AT THE BLACK SEA PORTS IN 1912.

Article.	Samsun.	Trebizond.	Kerasund.	Ordu.	Rize.	Tireboli.	Totals.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Building materials ..	29,760	38,030	12,520	1,400	3,200	1,000	85,910
Chemicals and drugs ..	12,220	5,530	2,810	700	210	—	21,470
China and glass ..	4,950	12,870	2,890	310	300	—	21,320
Clothing and haberdashery ..	14,880	33,670	6,260	2,260	2,050	—	59,120
Cotton goods and yarns ..	128,850	452,590	54,460	71,510	27,230	4,320	738,960
Foodstuffs ..	178,920	412,880	140,650	34,400	85,920	27,790	880,560
Hardware and iron ..	160,850	60,520	6,900	4,360	2,330	200	235,160
Hides and skins ..	54,570	9,350	14,350	2,120	1,620	1,110	83,120
Leather and shoes ..	17,200	39,500	9,290	—	—	—	65,990
Matches ..	18,000	20,030	3,010	2,800	2,100	1,200	47,140
Metals (copper and zinc) ..	37,550	28,440	3,300	2,390	470	—	72,150
Nails, wire, &c. ..	8,270	14,360	910	—	—	—	23,540
Paper ..	6,200	11,000	220	140	120	—	17,680
Petroleum ..	56,480	24,000	6,270	1,870	5,000	650	94,270
Sacks, canvas, &c. ..	22,330	16,120	5,650	160	230	—	44,490
Silks and velvets ..	3,620	13,010	4,570	—	—	—	21,200
Soap and perfumery ..	20,000	17,830	7,190	3,240	460	—	48,720
Spirits, wine and beer ..	7,850	12,500	2,690	680	150	—	23,870
Tobacco ..	2,000	11,000	3,800	1,200	1,300	680	19,980
Watches and jewellery ..	3,270	8,390	1,580	800	—	—	14,040
Woollen goods and yarns ..	150,700	39,000	11,800	1,460	7,750	1,020	211,730
Miscellaneous ..	151,010	261,110	24,680	9,670	11,820	950	459,240
Totals ..	1,089,480	1,541,730	325,800	141,470	152,260	38,920	3,289,660

TABLE III.—YIELD OF THE FOUR CHIEF TAXES IN ARMENIA
(EXCLUDING TREBIZOND) IN 1913.

	Tithes.	Sheep-tax.	Road-Tax.	Salt-tax.	Totals.	
	£T	£T	£T	£T	£T	£ sterling.
Erzerum	230,769	53,103	11,208	68,237	363,317	326,985
Bitlis	78,858	36,347	6,895	40,680	162,780	146,502
Diarbekr	134,760	63,947	8,197	—	206,904	186,214
Sivas	335,422	79,582	28,897	55,668	499,569	449,612
Mamuret ul-Aziz ..	127,422	26,978	6,272	—	160,672	144,605
Van	58,513	36,580	2,881	—	97,974	88,176
	£T 965,744 or £ 869,170	296,537 266,883	64,350 57,915	164,585 148,126	1,491,216 —	— 1,342,094

TABLE IV.—TURKISH EXPENDITURE IN ARMENIA
(EXCLUDING TREBIZOND) IN 1913.

	Erzerum.	Bitlis.	Diarbekr.	Sivas.	Mamuret ul-Aziz.	Van.	Totals.	
	£T	£T	£T	£T	£T	£T	£T	£ sterling.
Army ...	285,573	49,971	93,238	117,071	76,880	81,386	704,119	633,707
Finance ...	46,959	31,606	31,418	71,838	41,979	27,030	250,830	225,747
Home Office...	25,064	22,998	117,032	23,721	31,275	25,177	245,267	220,740
Gendarmerie	37,093	38,220	37,423	50,995	32,187	—	195,918	176,326
Public Works	9,196	3,859	6,426	27,152	5,330	1,605	53,568	48,211
Education ...	9,120	5,498	9,768	13,721	10,451	4,598	53,156	47,841
Religious uses	7,332	7,148	5,662	11,156	7,842	4,526	43,666	39,299
Agriculture ...	8,157	535	767	4,436	657	333	14,885	13,397
	£T 428,494 or £ 385,645	159,835 143,851	301,734 271,561	320,090 288,081	206,601 185,941	144,655 130,189	1,561,409 —	— 1,405,268

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MAPS

Armenia is covered by six sheets (Sinob, K. 36; Batum, K. 37; Tiflis, K. 38; Konia, J. 36; Erzerum, J. 37; Tabriz, J. 38) of the International Map (G.S.G.S., No. 2758) published by the War Office, on the scale of 1:1,000,000.

A special map of Armenia (G.S.G.S., No. 2894) has also been issued by the War Office in connexion with this series (November, 1918).



The special map mentioned in the foregoing note having been withdrawn from circulation, the enquirer should observe that the area which is the subject of this book is covered by the map of Eastern Turkey in Asia, published by the Royal Geographical Society, from whom it can be obtained, price 8s. 6*d.* (mounted), or 11s. 6*d.* (bound in case with explanatory text).

PEACE HANDBOOKS.

The following is a complete list of the Handbooks prepared under the General Editorship of Sir George W. Prothero, late Director of the Historical Section of the Foreign Office.

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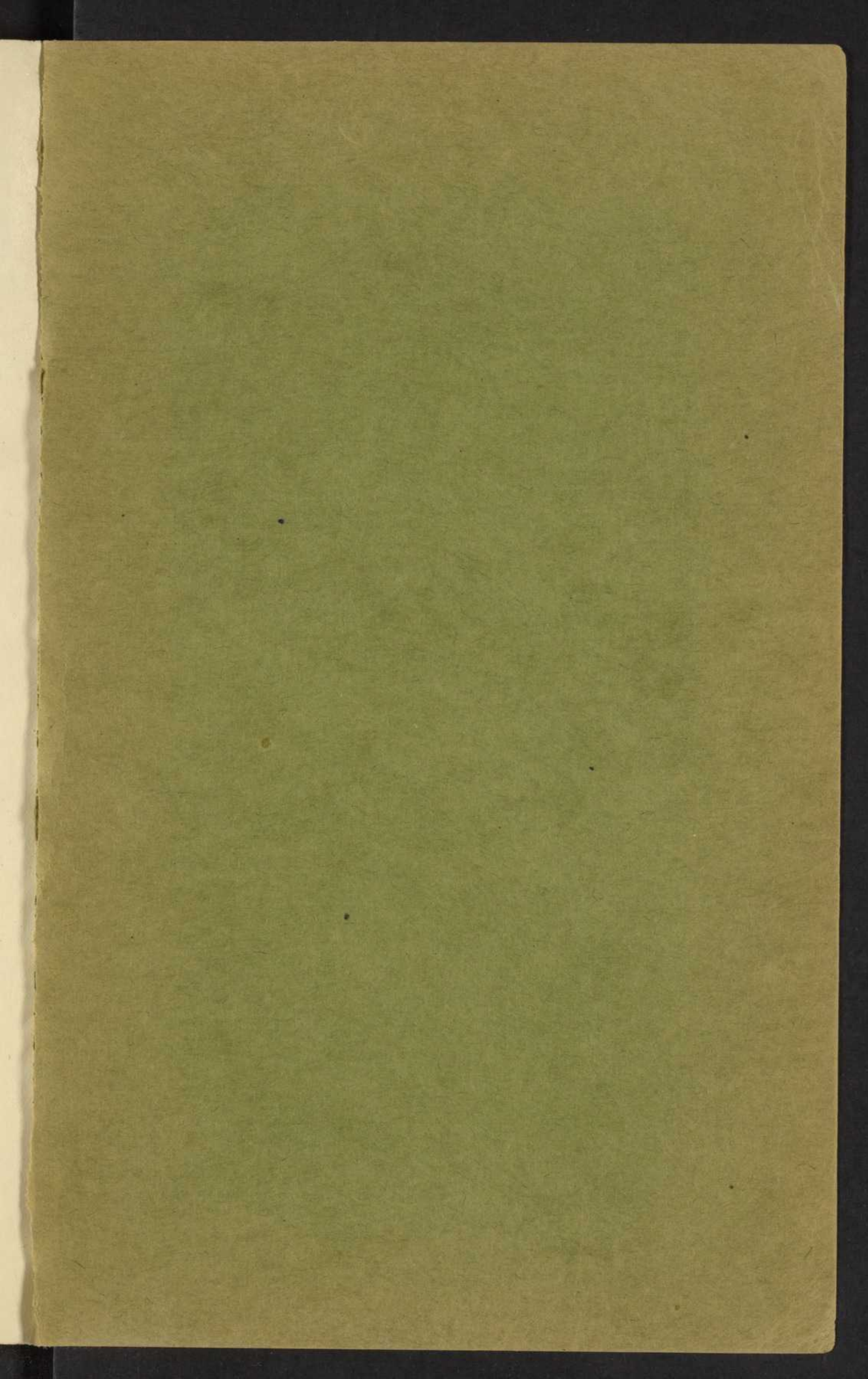
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