The Near East Society is presenting a series of six talks on "The Social Problems of the Near East" in February and March at the Near East Foundation, 54 East 6th Street, New York. Members will receive individual notification of these meetings. Speakers for the seminars include: Farhat Ziadah, Barclay Acheson, Bayard Dodge, Robert King Hall, Miss Serria Khoja, and Alvah L. Miller.

Jerusalem

Pottery from the first Jewish kingdom to the Herodian epoch was discovered recently in an ancient rock-hewn cistern in the northeastern corner of the Church of the Nativity in Bethlehem. The excavators, part of the British-staffed Department of Antiquities of the Jordanian government which is doing restoration work at the famous shrine, say that the cistern corresponds more to the "David's Well" of the Old Testament than the cistern in western Bethlehem, usually designated as the historic well.

The archaeologists believe that the close connection between the cistern and the Nativity grotto tend to confirm the tradition that the grotto was a subterranean stable. (See "Bethlehem" by The Reverend Charles T. Bridgeman in the December 1950 Bulletin of the Near East Society.)

Lebanon

Six hundred doctors from all parts of the Arab World convened in Beirut last November 17 and 18 for the Middle East Tropical Diseases Symposium. The symposium under the auspices of the American University of Beirut was sponsored by the UNRWA in collaboration with the World Health Organization (WHO), U. S. Navy Research Unit III and the French Jesuit Faculty of Medicine of Beirut. The President of the Republic, Sheikh Besara el-Khoury, and his Minister of Health, Dr. Elias el-Khoury, were patrons of the symposium.

Seventeen papers were read by outstanding authorities in the field of tropical medicine. Among them were Dr. H. H. Anderson, former president of the American Society of Tropical Medicine and Dean of the American University of Beirut School of Medicine, Dr. F. Clements of Geneva, Chief of the Nutrition Section of WHO, Dr. Mahmoud Abdul-Azim of the Royal Egyptian Ministry of Health and Commander Robert Phillips of the U. S. Navy. Dr. Sir Ali Shousha Pasha, Egypt, Dr. Justin-Besancon, professor at the University of Paris, were among the distinguished guests present.

The Lebanese Government, through its Legation in Washington, has announced that four scholarships (worth $500 each) are available to young men and women of Lebanese ancestry now living in the United States. The scholarships will be awarded to "Those who wish to pursue their studies in Lebanon, provided they select from among their major subjects of studies, the Arabic language and history of the Arab East."

Turkey

The new classroom-residence of the School of Nursing of the Admiral Bristol Hospital in Istanbul was opened last October with graduation exercises for the six young women who have completed the three-year course. Dr. Lorrin A. Shepard, director of the hospital; The Governor of Istanbul, Professor Fahrettin Kerim Gökay; The Honorable George Wadsworth, American Ambassador to Turkey, spoke at the dedication of the modern fireproof, brick-faced building which contains classroom space for thirty-five students, offices, chemistry and bacteriology laboratory, demonstration room, diet kitchen, an infirmary for sick nurses, living quarters for graduate and student nurses, and a recreation room.

Istanbul is to have a 300-room hotel in the center of the city overlooking the Bosphorus to be completed by January 1, 1953, according to recent announcement by Conrad N. Hilton, president of Hilton Hotels. The hotel, which will cost $5,000,000, will be built by the Turkish government and leased by the Hilton organization. The proposed hotel, the largest in the area, will be designed by the New York firm of Skidmore, Owings and Merrill, working with leading Turkish architects. The plan is to have the hotel ready for the Turkish government's celebration in 1953 of the 500th anniversary of the capture of Constantinople from the Byzantines.

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History of Lustre

BY MARION S. REDDING

The author, who lives in Jenkintown, Pennsylvania, was born and educated in Philadelphia. Her principal interest has always been collecting and studying antiques, and her collection of lustre ware is one of her outstanding hobbies. It includes pieces from Persia, Spain, Italy, France, and England. Mrs. Redding has been speaking to women's groups on lustre and the history of pottery for the past few years. Active in civic, church, and social service work in her community, Mrs. Redding manages to find time for half a dozen or more hobbies.

EDITOR.

Great grandmother's pink lustre tea set, on a little pie crust table, before an Adam fireplace, or a shelf of copper lustre pitchers made for the purpose of holding anything from sweet rich cream to hot mulled cider—these are the things so highly prized today by collectors of lustre. Few of us realize that this earthenware can trace its ancestry back to the pale grey dawn of civilization.

When we speak of "antique lustre" most of us think of the ware produced in England from the late eighteenth to the mid-nineteenth century. We spend hours searching for it in antique shops. We hold up a beautiful little copper lustre pitcher and look searchingly into the eyes of the dealer and ask, "Is it very old?" We must remember that if he answers, "O yes, very old," he is using a comparative term that perhaps needs explanation.

If you are looking for really old lustre your search, more than likely, will be rewarded only in the fine collections of great museums. The dates on the cards accompanying the exhibits will prove that they antedate the English lustre by nine or ten centuries. Perhaps you have seen these ancient ceramics without realizing that they are the ancestors of our old English lustre, for there is remarkably little resemblance between the two. The English pink lustre carries the family resemblance slightly better than the more metalized copper and silver lustres. You will notice that the pink lustre possesses that quality which makes its magic tones change according to the angle of view, and this is the outstanding characteristic of those incomparable ancient pieces.

When human eyes are strained and tired by the countless details of our busy day, we can often rest them by looking for a while at some distant point. I find it quite as restful to the mind to look back into the distant past to the days when man's civilization was in its infancy.

In this mood I try to conjure a picture of early man. I see him fighting for his existence, not only against the wild beasts that hid in the forests but against his human foes as well. Dwarfing these living enemies were the elements against which he had to fight to survive. He had to fight the wind, the cold blasts from the north that rocked his unstable dwelling, the snows that swamped his hideout and covered his food, the hot winds from the desert that blew scorching sand over his home and his herds. The sun was his enemy. He had to fight its drying rays to preserve his greatest possession, his water supply.

We are told that man can exist for days without food, but the need for water is a stern demand of nature which allows no exception, and so our primitive man's first concern was for his water supply. Naturally, he would choose to live near it as his enemies would permit, but how could he carry the water to his home? How could he store it and preserve its purity? Nature herself must have supplied the various answers to these questions. The empty gourd, the sea shell, the curled-up leaf and the cupping of his own hands must have suggested to him the possibility of holding and carrying the precious fluid. Then came the dawning of the thought that the earth itself could supply his need in a better way. Perhaps it was the print of his heel in soft moist clay, that hardened when baked by the sun's hot rays, which brought to his mind the consideration of an earthen vessel. As the ages passed he learned to mold this clay into any form he chose; to bake it in the sun—and the sun, his erstwhile enemy, became his friend. Later he baked his clay with fire and so evolved the grandmother of all earthenware.

With the discovery of fire a new era in the civilization of man was born. Now he could enjoy the luxury of cooked food. Hand in hand with cooking his food came the need for containers in which to prepare and serve it; something that could hold both meat and liquids and also withstand heat.

Even in the stone age when human beings lived in caves and great forgotten creatures roamed the earth, man knew the art of making earthenware. When the stone age met the bronze age the need for pottery was not obliterated. Indeed, no invention of any period has stopped the development of the ceramic art, or dimmed mankind's love of earthenware.

To see the relics of the first pottery made by man we turn to the excavations of the Near East. Of all parts of the earth this particular region, which is known as the cradle of our civilization, should be the most interesting to study. From it sprang not only our civilization and culture but our religion as well.

Antiquity is obscure and hides her secrets jealously, so that there are many theories and as many disagreements concerning man's early way of life; but who can doubt that the Near East was the mother of ancient civilization? Her relics are living again today; brought to life by the hands of the excavators, who have proved with certainty that a prehistoric civilization existed in the Near East.

Today, we can hold in our hands pottery from Egypt, Persia and Babylonia made in a period before writing existed, when implements were made of stone because the use of metal had not come to the consciousness of man. We can look back over the corridor of time to that period when man took his first faltering steps in the early light of civili-
zation's way. The archaeologist goes hand in hand with the historian to show us the development of culture.

For much of our knowledge, along these lines, we can thank the almost indestructible earthenware; pottery made from the mud of the Nile or the Tigris. Some of it was made even without the help of the potters wheel, although this was discovered at a remarkably early age and is often referred to as one of the oldest mechanical devices mentioned in history. Once it started turning it has never stopped.

The earliest excavated pottery is crude and unglazed, but the discovery of glazing (covering the porous clay with a waterproof coating) added much to the scant comfort of early man. He no longer had to carry and store water in gourds, or leather skins roughly sewn into bags, or earthenware coated with a distasteful gum which spoiled the sweetness of the drink. The Egyptians knew how to protect the soft clay vessels with a glaze, probably in pre-dynastic times. Early man even coated articles, chiseled out of soft rock, with a glaze to give them durability and render them more waterproof. However, the glazing of earthenware with oxide of tin is believed to be of Saracenic origin, having been introduced into Egypt and Persia by the Arabs. There are examples of this found in Ashur and assigned to a period about 1300 B.C.

The great skill and artisanship of the ancient potters of Mesopotamia are responsible for the production of glazed ware in Syria in the first and second centuries A.D. This no doubt supplied inspiration for much subsequent work.

Sometimes the ancient wares were decorated even before the discovery of glazing, but this art was developed to a much higher degree after the discovery of the protective coating. Many agree that lustre decoration is one of the greatest artistic achievements of the Near East. The exquisite ruby, pale gold, copper and green tones of ancient lustre have never been surpassed.

The three greatest authorities on this subject disagree about the birthplace of lustre. Was it Persia, Egypt or Mesopotamia, or did it develop almost simultaneously in these countries? Who can say, when scholars disagree? It is certainly that many examples of lustre have been found in excavations made in all three places, but whether it was made in each locality, or carried there by Arab caravans, is left to your imagination. According to the Metropolitan Museum of Art, it was probably first made in Mesopotamia.

It appears that the nomadic tribes of Arabs were not noted craftsmen themselves; but they adopted and assimilated the culture of the people they vanquished, spreading the combined art from one region to another. It was given and taken here and there as they conquered with their swords and remained to be conquered in their hearts by the culture, the arts and the crafts of their vassals.

We can trace, in Mohammedan art, the influence of all the countries subdued by the mighty sword of Islam; even the arts of Southern Europe, acquired when Islam swept across Northern Africa and crossed the Straits of Gibraltar to Spain. In the wake of the army the craftsmen followed. In Spain they found potters who had already developed their own techniques, but were willing to accept new and superior ideas. The use of lustre was one of the innovations that was quickly adopted and recognized for its true worth. The Hispano-Moresque pottery, for that is what the product of this period was named, was beautiful beyond description. The famous Alhambra vase is an example of this ware. It is said that it was discovered, filled with gold, in an underground chamber of the Alhambra. Its four foot height of classic beauty is decorated with turquoise and copper lustre now dimmed with age, but none the less beautiful.

Toward the end of the 800 years that Spain was controlled by the Moors, Christian influences crept in. This is noticeable in the arts and crafts of the period. The arabesques, palmettos, geometric figures and Cufic inscriptions, which had been in keeping with the Arab way of life, were gradually replaced by Christian symbols.

Finally by 1566 the Arabic language was forbidden along with dress and art in the Moorish style. The expulsion of the Moors followed, depriving Spain of a large part of her talented craftsmen and artistic resources. Perhaps this was partially responsible for the decline of ceramics in Spain. Lustre, in particular, descended from the most sublime height to the commonest level, being used at this time to decorate kitchen ware, barber's bowls and such.

However, Spanish lustre had served a great purpose for it had stimulated the art in Italy. There the superb Italian workmen, using their nimble fingers and alert minds, produced a magnificent luster pottery. After the sixteenth century there seems to have been a lull in the making of lustre pottery until platinum was discovered. Around the middle of the eighteenth century platinum was brought to England and our beautiful old English silver lustre was the result.

Close on the heels of silver lustre came copper lustre and gold lustre with its lovely pink and purple tones. If one can remember not to compare them too closely with their ancestors they can fill a very fine place in our modern collecting.

However, we must give credit where credit is due and admit that the ancient lustre of the Near East far surpassed the excellence of its descendants.
TURKEY: A CONTRAST — 1900 and 1950
By EDGAR J. FISHER

Dr. Fisher is Carter Glass Professor of Government at Sweet Briar College, Virginia. From 1913 until 1933 he was professor of history and Dean of Robert College in Istanbul. He was assistant director of the Institute of International Education in New York from 1935 until 1948, when he joined the faculty of Sweet Briar College. Born in Rochester, New York, Dr. Fisher holds A.B. and M.A. degrees from the University of Rochester, and his doctor's degree from Columbia University. He has taught and lectured at many colleges and universities and is the author of numerous articles on the history, social and religious development of the Near East, as well as on international problems and politics, and on various phases of international education.

In assembling the material for Turkey on 1900, Dr. Fisher was assisted by the Sweet Briar College students in his class on "The Near East in the Modern World." — EDITOR.

* * *

There is no important country in the world which has experienced such distinct and thorough changes in the last half-century, as one finds in contrasting the Ottoman Empire of 1900 and the Turkish Republic of 1950. The outstanding fact is that there is no area of Turkish life in which the changes did not show progressive developments. For the purposes of this comparison and contrast the territory of the present Turkish Republic will be considered, namely Eastern Thrace and Anatolia (Asia Minor).

It should be borne in mind that the Ottoman Empire in 1900 covered a vastly larger geographical extent than does the Turkish Republic of 1950. At the earlier date the Ottoman Empire in Europe included what is now Albania, a large portion of Yugoslavia, parts of Macedonia now included in Bulgaria and Greece, and Western Thrace which is a part of Greece today; in Asia it included the present countries of the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan, Iraq, Israel, Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and the Yemen, the feudal districts of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Muscat, Qatar, and the Aden Protectorate; and in Africa the Ottoman Empire had at least a nominal and legal control over Egypt, the Sudan and Tripoli. Comments and statistics concerning these extensive areas in the Near East will not be included in this statement, but will be found in the article, "The Southern Near East During the First Half of the 20th Century," in the January Bulletin of the Near East Society.

1900

Ottoman Empire

The government was an absolute theocratic monarchy under the Sultan-Caliph; Grand Vizier was appointed by the Sultan, and the Divan (Cabinet) of twelve was appointed by the Grand Vizier. As a theocratic state, the Sultan, as Caliph, was limited by his appointee, the Sheik-ul-Islam, who was the head of the Moslem religious establishment. Under the capitulatory system, foreigners had special economic and judicial privileges, and special postoffices of their own. The country was divided into 12 vilayets (provinces) ruled by valis (governors) appointed by the Sultan.

Population—14,085,000 (Estimated)

The 12 largest cities with estimated populations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constantinople</td>
<td>1,106,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smyrna</td>
<td>201,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aleppo</td>
<td>200,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salonika</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adrianople</td>
<td>81,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broussia</td>
<td>76,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayseri</td>
<td>72,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konya</td>
<td>60,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adana</td>
<td>45,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sivas</td>
<td>43,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erzurum</td>
<td>39,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bitlis</td>
<td>39,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Immigrant Populations

There are no statistics available that would indicate that there was a considerable number of immigrant populations in the portions of the Ottoman Empire here under consideration.

Seaports and Shipping

Constantinople was one of the world's important ports. It had three separate harbors — outer, inner and war. Also important were Smyrna (Izmir) with its magnificent harbor on the west coast of Asia Minor, and Salonika with an equally remarkable harbor on the northern coast of the Aegean Sea. Important ports on the Black Sea were Amasra, Samsun, Sinop,

1950

Turkish Republic

The Turkish Republic, with sovereignty over Eastern Thrace and Anatolia, was recognized in the Treaty of Lausanne (1923). Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, founder and first president of modern Turkey, abolished the Sultanate and the Caliphate and a new constitution was adopted in April 1924. Turkey is a liberal Republic with sovereignty in the people. The President heads the state. The President of the Council (Prime Minister) heads the cabinet of fifteen members. The Cabinet is responsible to the Grand National Assembly (G.N.A.), a unicameral legislature. The country is divided into 72 vilayets, of which 6 are in Europe and 66 in Asia Minor.

Population—20,902,628 (By census of 1950)

The 12 largest cities according to census of 1945:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>City</th>
<th>Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Istanbul (Constantinople)</td>
<td>1,000,022 (1950)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Izmir (Smyrna)</td>
<td>321,905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ankara</td>
<td>286,592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adana</td>
<td>100,780</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bursa (Broussia)</td>
<td>85,919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eskişehir</td>
<td>80,030</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaziantep</td>
<td>62,873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Konya</td>
<td>58,457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kayseri</td>
<td>57,864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Erzurum</td>
<td>50,875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sivas</td>
<td>44,856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malatya</td>
<td>41,530</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Immigrant Populations

To recoup the loss of 1,200,000 Greek Orthodox Christians from Anatolia in accordance with the compulsory exchange of population provisions of the Treaty of Lausanne (1924), the Turkish Republic received about 400,000 Turkish Moslems from Greek territory, and pursued a policy of repatriating Turkish minorities from the neighboring Balkan countries in cooperation with these governments. Several thousand annually entered Turkey in the decade before World War II, coming from Bulgaria, Roumania and Yugoslavia. Most of these immigrants were settled in Eastern Thrace. In 1950 the Bul-
The mercantile fleet of the Ottoman Empire consisted of about 100 steamers of a total tonnage of 60,000 tons, and 800 sailing vessels of approximately 170,000 tons. Foreign vessels carried the great bulk of Turkish trade.

**Railroads**

There was a total of about 2,500 miles of railroad in Eastern Thrace and Anatolia, chiefly foreign-owned. Mileage was insufficient and rolling-stock inadequate.

The Oriental Railway ran from Constantinople to the Bulgarian frontier, with additional lines from Kuleli Burgas to Salonika via Dedegatch, an open roadstead on the Aegean Sea, and from Salonika to the Serbian frontier.

The Anatolian Railways operated with lines from Haidar Pasha (opposite Istanbul) to Izmir and Angora (Ankara), and from Eskisehir to Afyon Karahisar and Konya.

The Smyrna-Kasaba Railway ran with extensions to Ala Shehir, and from Manissa to Soma, and to Afyon Karahisar, to connect later with the Baghdad Railway, the construction of which was about to be discussed seriously.

The Smyrna-Aydin Railway, the first railway in Turkey, opened in 1866. There were several branch lines, a few miles in length.

The Mudanya-Brusa Railway, a short narrow-gauge line, connected Brusa with the Sea of Marmora, and there was the Mersin-Adana Railway, control of which was in the hands successively of different foreign nationals.

**Trams, Cars, Trucks and Planes**

Of these methods of transportation, trams were alone existent in Turkey in 1900. The city of Constantinople was the only town that had an electric tramway. The inadequacy of all means of local transportation was great. Communication was by animal-drawn conveyances. There were no telephones.

**Industry**

Despite the fact that the Ottoman Empire had quite adequate resources for industrial development, such as coal, iron and water power, her industries were unimportant. Turkey was known to have considerable mineral resources but they were undeveloped. Some obstacles to industrial expansion were: The imposition by the Great Powers upon Turkey of restrictions upon tariff duties, the drain of the military system upon the Turkish Moslem man-power, and the social system limited the participation of women in industry.

Except for household industries, manufacturing was limited to carpet making, textiles, silks, tanneries and milling. There was hand-loom weaving, and work in copper and brass. The tobacco régie was a state monopoly.

Banking was predominantly in the hands of the Imperial Ottoman Bank. Other important banks operating in Turkey were the Agricultural Bank, and several foreign banks.

Small-scale industry was the rule, and trading was done in small shops, often in covered bazaars. In the chief cities there were some large shops, and a certain number of department stores.

The Ottoman Empire always had an unfavorable balance in foreign trade.

**Agriculture**

Turkey was primarily an agricultural country, but had only a little more than 15 per cent of her area under cultivation.

**Seaports and Shipping**

Istanbul, the Constantinople of 1900, continues to be the chief harbor. Izmir is the second port in size and facilities. Iskenderun (Alexandretta) will doubtless become one of the leading ports of the Eastern Mediterranean. Facilities at Mersin have been greatly improved. The best natural harbor on the Black Sea coast is Sinop. The others — especially Amasra, Samsun and Trabzon — need the construction of extensive harbor works, some of which development is in progress.

The merchant fleet consists of 125 vessels of a total tonnage of 200,000 tons, and a considerable number of sailing and auxiliary ships that serve the commerce between Istanbul and the coastal ports. Turkish vessels now ply in the Mediterranean Sea and cross the Atlantic Ocean. Liberty ships have recently been purchased from the United States. The merchant marine is operated by the government for freight and passenger service.

**Railroads**

All of the railroads have now been acquired by the Turkish Government, in accordance with one of the earliest decisions of the Grand National Assembly (G.N.A.). Under the Re-
Modern development in agriculture was practically unknown, and experimentation was apt to be looked upon with suspicion. Primitive conditions prevailed in farming and cattle-raising. Agriculture was hampered by high taxes, poor roads and an insufficient amount of small, freehold property ownership. That the soil yielded abundantly year after year under primitive conditions of tillage was an indication of its rich fertility. The chief products were cereals: maize, wheat, barley; fruits: figs, melons, raisins; nuts, cotton, flax, opium, silk, valonia, tobacco and olive oil.

Scientific forestry was unknown, and denuded tracts were simply used for pasturage. Raising livestock was the chief occupation in the central and western sections of Anatolia. Fisheries were of considerable importance.

Education

In the Ottoman Empire there was no national system of education. The Minister of Public Instruction was the head of the Moslem schools, most of which were attached to the mosques and all of which received government aid. About 85 per cent of the Turkish population was illiterate. In addition to the primary schools, there were a number of secondary schools, but a university system had not yet been organized, although a Faculty of Medicine was established in 1875.

Along with the modern industrial development of Turkey as illustrated by the picture of the Zonguldak coal region, the picturesque is still seen, especially in the cities and towns of Anatolia. Water sellers such as the one shown below, are seen occasionally — a reminder of the older life of Turkey. This photograph was taken at Bursa, Turkey's capital from 1326 until 1361.

R. E. Butterfield

public the total railroad mileage has been increased to about 5,000, and hence has been doubled. Construction of new lines continues. The new construction is in the following sections:

An east-west line in Northern Anatolia.

Connections in Asia Minor with the railway systems of Iran and Iraq.

Only about 40 miles of the existing railways have double track. The government is committed to a large program of railroad expansion, which will be carried out as soon as possible.

Trans, Cars, Trucks, Planes, etc.

The government is trying as rapidly as possible to overcome the deficiencies due to the lack of satisfactory roads and highways. With American advice, road building is being carried on until the country has approximately 30,000 miles of first-class roads. Of the roads already constructed there are practically none that serve more than two lines of motor traffic.

With the development of road building, there has been a great increase in the number of private automobiles, commercial trucks and passenger bus services. The use of very heavy trucks will be limited until bridges are built strong enough to sustain loads of more than 18 or 20 tons.

In the ten years preceding 1946, no foreign airlines were permitted in Turkey, and domestic lines developed chiefly after World War II. Domestic planes now serve the country, north and south and east and west, while the capital, Ankara, is connected by air service with all the leading cities. Practically all the chief international airlines have regular stops in Turkey on their world-wide flights. The Turkish airways have services to Greece, Iran and Iraq.

Other cities than Istanbul have tramlines, but this development was definitely slowed down because trams were introduced late, at a time when autos and later airplanes were coming into general use.

The Turkish Republic now has over 18,500 telephone lines on land and 2,600 miles of submarine cable routes. The telephone networks are chiefly in Istanbul, Izmir and Ankara, with long-distance connections.

There are two radio broadcasting stations both of which are in Ankara. A third and much more powerful station is projected.

Industry

In Turkey's industrialization program, there are two objectives — to encourage private enterprise, and where needed for rapid development, to have state-built and managed industries. In line with these policies essential industries have been established and expanded, such as textiles, sugar refining, paper mills, iron and steel works. Petroleum has been discovered in the southeastern part of the country.

To assist in the rapid industrialization of the country, extensive hydro-electric projects are underway in the mountainous regions. The rich and varied mineral deposits are also being developed. In addition to coal, copper and iron, there are important quantities of chromium, manganese, emery, mercury, nickel, tin, platinum and zinc. Of meerschaum Turkey has a world monopoly.

[Continued on page 11]
Yemen

By BRUCE CONDE

The author was educated at the University of California at Los Angeles in his native state and is now doing post-graduate work in Arabic studies at the American University of Beirut. During the war Mr. Conde was a staff officer in an airborne unit in the European and Middle East theatres of operations and later in the occupation of Japan. He has published articles on Japan, Spain, and Spanish America, in addition to the Yemen.—EDITOR.

Least known of the major Arab states—although its population numbers five million and its boundaries contain 75,000 square miles of the most fertile and productive lands of Arabia—is the Imam Ahmed’s Kingdom of Yemen, part of the Arabia Felix of the classical writers.

Occupying the southernmost corner of Arabia along the Red Sea, Yemen’s southern boundaries touch the British protectorate of Aden with the great Rub al Khali desert to the east, and Saudi Arabia to the north.

Since 1947 the Mutawakkilite Kingdom of Yemen, as the country is officially known, has been a member of the United Nations, with its hitherto unfamiliar red banner of the Sword of Islam and five white stars unfurled beside the flags of its fellow Arab states. For this momentous occasion on entering the world association of states the then-ruling Imam Yahya sent his own son, H. R. H. Seif al Islam Abdullah, brother and foreign minister of the present king, to address the UN. The Prime Minister opened his speech to the Assembly with the familiar Koranic invocation: “Bismillah Rahmani Rahim”, (in the name of God the Compassionate, the Merciful) then spoke of his country’s long fight for freedom and its Sabaeo civilization of thousands of years ago, thus keynoting three significant facts about the Yemenite Kingdom.

Of its Islamic nature there can be no doubt for it is an absolute theocratic monarchy whose ruler is considered by the people of the country to be Commander of the Faithful, and Imam, rather than a king in the western sense. And yet we must remember that in as religious a state as the Yemen, the Sharia, or sacred law, is above the Imam himself, as constant almost constitutional guarantee and reminder of the inviolability of the people’s rights, customs, and responsibilities. Then too, there is always present in Yemenite usage that basic democratic spirit of the Arabs which has astonished the foreign visitors in the neighboring kingdom of Saudi Arabia, who observe the Bedouins addressing the Wahhabi king as Ya Abdul-Aziz, instead of as “Your Majesty”. In Yemen the few foreign travelers who entered the country during the past three decades have given us a vivid picture of the venerable Imam seated each morning beneath the tree of justice to hear the disputes, grievances and complaints of his people, administering justice speedily and efficiently at no cost to the complainants.

As fighters for freedom the Yemenites have probably established a world record for persistence and unconquerability. Since the first century of the Christian era the seizure of all or part of their prosperous land by prospective conquerors has been attempted. Invaded in turn by the Romans, Ethiopians, Persians, Egyptians, Portuguese, Turks, British and Saudi Arabians, some of whom managed to occupy strong points for a few decades at a time, the Yemen has never entirely submitted to any of them. Always a Himyarite prince or Zaidi Imam has managed to keep alive the flame of national independence in the fastness of the mountains until the invader could be expelled or persuaded to withdraw.

Until scientific archaeological exploration and study of Arabia’s most ancient kingdom has been completed, and until the buried capital cities of Minaean, Sabaeo, Raydan, Qatabanian and Hadramawt states have been excavated, we will continue to know less about the country’s past than of any other comparable civilization known to the modern world. This much we do know—that from sometime in the second millennium B.C. until the end of the sixth century A.D., the Yemen was the center of the richest and most cultured civilization of Arabia, using a phonetic alphabet at least as ancient as that of the Phoenicians, building stone roads, skyscrapers, dams, and providing the Mediterranean world with spices, frankincense and myrrh and transporting to Europe the trade of India and the Far East.

The country still provides the world with its finest coffee, Mocha grown only in the Yemenite area high in the mountain terraces. (See picture on this page.) Yemen exports grain, cereals, hides, wool, fine silverwork and semi-precious stones. It is a self-sufficient land of independent farmers, herdsmen, craftsmen, and small traders.

The climate of its populous 6,000 feet high plateau area, overshadowed by mountains which reach a height of 12,000 feet, is mild and healthy, varying between 57 and 71 degrees in temperature, with an annual rainfall of twenty inches.

In order to modernize their ancient land, described by its few foreign guests as a sixteenth century kingdom, the Imams have built modern hospitals, schools and public buildings, retained technical experts from other Arab and from western countries, and have instituted a free and compulsory system of education to the age of seventeen, with provision for continued higher education at the expense of the state for all promising graduates of secondary schools, regardless of their economic or social status.
Near East Camera

Part of Yemen's camel corps photographed at Hodeida, on the Red Sea. This is the chief port for the country. Mocka, which gave its name to the famous variety of coffee, was formerly the leading seaport, but in recent times has been supplanted by Hodeida.

A street in Jidda, Saudi Arabia. It is a port on the Red Sea and is the city in which foreign diplomatic missions are posted, rather than Saudi Arabia's two capitals, Mecca and Riyadh.

Entrance to the church of Daphni, which is on or about the spot of the ancient Temple of Apollo at Daphni, near Athens.

The Kut Barrage on the Tigris in Iraq. Completed and opened by King Ghazi in 1939, this barrage ensures the irrigation of some 900,000 acres of land. It is 1,625 feet long, and goes through a canal called the Gharrat, taking the line of what was once the main bed of the Tigris.

The courtyard of the Jumblat palace at Mukhtarah. The Jumblats are Druzes and one of the most important feudal families of southern Lebanon. During the period of the French Mandate in Lebanon, a woman, Sitt Nazia, was the leading chief of the family.
NEW BOOKS ON THE NEAR EAST


The two queens are Khazurans, the slave concubine of the Caliph al-Mahdi, who later became the queen mother of Harun al-Rashid, and Zubaidah, the wife of Harun and the most famous woman of medieval Asia.

Miss Abbott, a research scholar at the Oriental Institute of the University of Chicago, reveals a rich picture of one of the most colorful courts of all history. Her book gives authentic accounts of the great age of Harun al-Rashid.

Portrait of a Turkish Family by Irfan Orga. Macmillan, 1950. $4.00.

This book covers three generations of a Turkish family: the idyllic period before World War I, the tragedy of the war years in the time of the Ottoman sultans, and the great changes after the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923.

The author brings to life the joys and tribulations of his family in an appealing manner. This is his first book. He was educated in Istanbul, and has lived, in addition to his native Turkey, in Portugal, South America and England.

NEW ENVOY TO ISRAEL

Monnett B. Davis, United States Ambassador to Panama, has been named Ambassador to Israel, succeeding James G. McDonald. Mr. Davis, who has been in the diplomatic service since 1920, has served in Europe, the Far East, Latin America, and the Department of State in Washington. His new assignment is his first in the Near East.

WHAT IS IT?

The picture on page 12 shows a section of the shrine of the Lord's Prayer on the Mount of Olives, Jerusalem. The shrine, on the grounds of the Carmelite convent, is a rectangular court with covered galleries, on the outer walls of which are panels. There are thirty-six of these panels each bearing a translation of the Lord's Prayer in a different language. The translations (the photograph shows four: Latin, Arabic, Armenian, Hebrew) are done in white lettering on blue faience tiles. Other languages represented include: The Aramaic of our Lord's familiar speech, the Greek of the Gospels, European languages including Celtic and Icelandic, the major languages of Asia, American Indian, and Eskimo.

The location of the Carmelite convent is the traditional site where the Savior taught the Prayer to His disciples.

ANATOLIA COLLEGE

Last July Anatolia College, Thessaloniki, Greece, became a member of the Near East College Association. We feel that the readers of the Bulletin will be interested in a brief history of the college.

As its name implies, the institution's beginning was in Anatolia (Asia Minor). It was founded in 1886 in Marsovan (now Merzifon) Turkey by missionaries of the American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions, representing the Congregational Churches of the United States. In 1894 it received a charter from the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. From 1886 to 1921 full American college work was done and some three hundred graduates received the B.A. degree. These young men were of Armenian and Greek ancestry.

The Turks closed the college in 1921, but President and Mrs. George E. White began again elsewhere. They followed the refugees from Asia Minor to Greece and in January 1924 reopened the college in Thessaloniki in a rented casino, using abandoned army barracks for dormitories. Dr. White selected a superb site on a hilltop about three miles from the city, and there Anatolia College is now located. Ground was broken on this new campus for the first college building in 1931 and in 1934, when three buildings had been erected, the campus was occupied. A school for girls, conducted by the American Board in Thessaloniki became the Girls' Department of the college.

In 1933 Ernest W. Riggs succeeded Dr. White as president. There were seven fruitful years, then war once more disrupted the college work. The plant was successively occupied as a Greek military hospital, as German headquarters, and as British headquarters. During that period Greek staff members continued school in the city. September 1945 saw the college operating again on its own campus. Rehabilitation of the damaged plant and equipment was a major task and even yet the campus bears deep scars of the war years.

During the years in Greece the college has offered a course following almost wholly the Greek "Gymnasion"; it prepares students for the professional courses of Greek and European universities. The present plant, eight permanent buildings and some temporary structures, is quite inadequate for the student body of approximately three hundred boys and two hundred girls. These students are almost all of Greek nationality, although some are of Armenian or Jewish background.

President and Mrs. Riggs retired last June and on July 1 Carl C. Compton was inaugurated as president. Mr. Compton was with the college during its last years in Turkey. With a loyal faculty of more than forty men and women (thirty of whom are Greeks) and with an eager student body, Anatolia College will continue its work of training Greek youth "for capable and public spirited citizenship and for effective and satisfying personal living."

NEAR EAST SOCIETY

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ROBERT S. HARDY, American Director
Near East College Assn. Inc.
46 Cedar St., New York 5, N. Y.

E. C. MILLER, Executive Secretary
Near East Foundation, Inc.
54 E. 64th St., New York 21, N. Y.

ALVAH L. MILLER, General Secretary
Near East Society
46 Cedar Street, New York 5, N. Y.

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VIRGINIA BOTSFORD, Editor
46 Cedar Street, Room 1209
New York 5, N. Y.
Turkey

(Continued from page 7)

1900

Under the millet system the minorities provided for the education of their own people. The Armenians, Greeks and Jews had rather extensive educational organizations, which they supported at considerable expense to their several communities. This education did not go beyond the lycée or gymnasium grade, i.e., junior college.

There were many foreign educational institutions located in Constantinople and other cities of the Empire. Chief among them were the American, British, French, German and Italian schools. None of these institutions carried on work beyond the American junior college grade, except Robert College, although this advanced work was not recognized by the Turkish authorities.

Social Conditions

Social conditions were at a low ebb because of the backward government of Sultan Abdul Hamid II, and because social affairs were under regulation by the religious or Shari'ah law. In general family life was patriarchal in character. Marriages took place at a very early age, babies were numerous, and infant mortality high. Limitations were put upon normal social life among the Moslems because of the precepts of the Koran, with its sanctions for polygamy, the veiling of women, and the segregation of women in public places and conveniences. Social club life was limited to the men.

The Turkish Government made modest efforts to guard the public health. The Minister of Public Health established a Health Inspector in every vilayet, and there were three Pasteur Institutes in different cities. There were hospitals, both Turkish and foreign, and some free clinics and dispensaries. The most modern methods of medical treatment were still lacking. In accordance with Moslem teaching and practice special care was given to the insane, feeble-minded and crippled.

1950

The Central Bank of the Turkish Republic controls note issues and exchange operations. Industrial banks have been established, which are in charge of the nationalized industries and operation. These are: The Sumer Bank to handle most of the long-term industrial projects; the Eti Bank to control the mineral production; the Agricultural Bank, an older institution which handles agricultural programs; and the Ish Bank which is concerned with certain industries and the lignite mines. The leading foreign bank is the Anglo-French Ottoman Bank. There are branch banks in different cities.

In foreign trade Turkey now has a favorable balance of modest size. At present her international trade is carried on chiefly with the United States and Great Britain, with Italy a somewhat distant third on the list.

Agriculture

Despite the emphasis upon industrialization in the Turkish Republic, the country is still predominantly agricultural and pastoral. The land is 26 per cent under civilization, 43 per cent consists of pasture land and meadows, 15 per cent is forest, and 16 per cent waste land and water. Government aid, especially in irrigation projects, in the drainage of large marshy areas, in training students in agricultural schools in modern methods, and through supervised loans, is bringing more and more land under cultivation. The average farm has about 15 acres and the law forbids anyone holding more than 1,200 acres.

The chief cereal products are wheat, which is the most important, barley, oats, rye, corn and rice. Large quantities of cotton are grown. The chief Turkish crop for export is tobacco, of which America purchases $30,000,000 worth annually. The most important fruits are figs and raisins, with citrus fruits secondary. Filberts and walnuts are important exports. Other valuable agricultural products are opium, olives and olive oil, flax, hemp, vegetable dyes and valonia, which figure as important exports.

The raising of livestock is one of the chief Turkish occupations, especially horses, oxen, cattle, sheep and goats. World famous are the millions of Ankara goats, yielding finest mohair for export. Fishery is an important item in the Turkish economy.

Education

A fundamental educational policy of the new Turkey is to eradicate illiteracy as rapidly as possible. Equal opportunity is given to all persons to secure free public education, according to their ability. Special emphasis has been placed upon primary education which is compulsory through the twelfth year of age. Statistics of the Ministry of Education show that there are almost one million boys and one-half million girls in the primary schools. Village institutes supplement the primary schools in the agricultural communities.

Secondary education is given in middle schools and lycées, equivalent to American high schools and junior colleges. At this educational level there are Turkish privately-supported schools, and also foreign secondary schools. In the new Turkey all schools are subject to the control of the Turkish Minister of Education.

For higher education there are the University of Istanbul and the University of Ankara with the usual faculties. Among the specialized institutions are teachers colleges, the University of Technology to train experts for the modernization of Turkey, the School of Political Science to train for the civil service, the Conservatory of Music, and the School of Economics and Commerce.

Social Conditions

The substitution of western law for the theocratic system of the Ottoman Empire transformed the social system. Most significant was the emancipation of Turkish women. Family life has been transformed by the abolition of polygamy. The introduction of the Latin alphabet aided the campaign against illiteracy, as the abolition of the fez and the veil aided social changes. Interest in the arts has been awakened by the founding of new museums, and in giving specific encouragement to architects, musicians, painters and writers. The social sciences are given particular attention, with institutions and programs for public health and social welfare receiving increased support. These changes have likewise produced a free and distinguished press. Sports, especially basketball and tennis, are common and are played with enthusiasm. Hakeleri (People's Houses), centers of informal education and sociability providing libraries, lectures, movies and radios for ‘teen-agers and young adults, have been established.
The Near East Map

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