

muslim quarters of Beirut. Peter Loizos and Michael Attalides in separate articles on Cypriot village politics also find clientelist links adopting and extending during modernization. Similar conclusions seem warranted from materials presented by Kenneth Brown on a Moroccan city, and Amal Rassam in an article dealing with patron-client links in Iraq, and another by Amina Farrag on center-periphery links in Jordan.

Other essays stand more alone. Joaquin Romero-Mauro provides an interesting account of caciquismo in early 20th century Spain. Bruno Etienne's essay on clientelism in Algeria demands attention because of the sparseness of descriptive materials. Some essays, such as Emrys Peters' account of patronage in Cyrenaica and Samson El-Messiri's dealing with the changing role of the *futuwwa* in the social structure of Cairo, are so narrowly focused that only specialists will be interested.

Two pieces—one already noted by Sydel Silverman, and another by Michael Gilseman focussing on Lebanon—do offer insights that once elaborated could serve to sort and integrate much of the clientelist literature, including the contributions in this volume. Silverman emphasizes the distinction between patronage relationships and the patronage ethos; Gilseman contrasts the ideology of patronage with the reality of power relationships. Presumably an ideology of clientelism and the reality may coincide, but probably only in a relatively unmobilized setting. Once client demands increase, the ideology may remain, but reality is likely to change. Moreover, an ideology of patronage may or may not be held by all parts of the population. Similarly, reality need not be the same for all. For example, the ideology and reality of patronage relationships might remain at the elite level and become attenuated for the rest of the population. Most accounts of patron-client relations ignore these distinctions, and consequently many of the disputes among scholars of clientelism (or scholars opposed to the concept) never meet and rarely end. *Patrons and Clients*, then, is a significant contribution, but it should be viewed as an interim report rather than the final word on the subject.

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Spiridonakis B. G., *Essays in the historical geography of the Greek world in the Balkans during the Turkokratia*, Institute for Balkan Studies, Thessaloniki 1977, pp. 171.

The history of the Greek world during the Turkish domination, or as we say in Greece under "Turkokratia", has not been studied thoroughly. The latter is usually considered to have lasted 1453-1821, that is from the Turkish occupation of Constantinople to the beginning of the Greek revolution in 1821. In reality it has begun in other parts of the Greek world much earlier and has not yet finished in some others. As a matter of fact about 40% of Cyprus, the Greek islands of Imbros and Tenedos, Halki, Prinkipos and Constantinople remain under Turkish domination and are submitted to a strenuous effort of "Turkification" by the settlement of Turks dispatched from Asia Minor. Every effort is undertaken by the Turkish authorities to exterminate the Greek population there or at least terrorise them sufficiently until they decide to leave without taking with them their belongings. They are very successful in this connection.

The author makes a very satisfactory analysis of developments in the Greek world 1453-1821 without however considering Asia Minor, the Ionian islands and Crete (the latter before 1669). Whilst the exclusion in the latter two cases may be justified by the non expansion

of Ottoman domination to the Ionian islands and before 1669 Crete, I cannot understand the exclusion of Asia Minor. The latter has had the *privilegium odiosum* of being conquered first by the Ottomans and of undergoing very often all the latter's misbehavior, whilst until the 1922 disaster flourishing Greek colonies whose past influence is felt even now, 56 years later, survived. The eradication of the Greek element from both Rumelia and Eastern Thrace is not yet complete, as the author writes (pp. 95-6).

The author is impressed by the vitality which the Greeks showed under Ottoman domination from the 17th century on whilst during the first 150 years after the fall of Constantinople their number diminished and they were not able to hold their culture at the former high level. It has to be said that certainly the Ottoman domination of the Greek nation did not weaken at that time nor those belonging to same could understand the meaning of the Ottoman defeat in the suburbs of Vienna as the beginning of the end of the Ottoman Empire. The "grand homme" survived for 250 years more. On the other hand the author considers that the decay of the Greek nation began some centuries before the conquest of Constantinople and particularly when the Byzantine Empire was deprived of its economic resources by the Latin colonies which settled mainly in the capital and also by the conquest of some Western provinces and of a great number of islands. Usually it is acknowledged even by economists that economic events or developments are less important than political events and this is the reason of the undersigned's astonishment. The latter attributes the weakening of the Byzantine Empire when considered from the economic point of view rather to the decay of agriculture in general and particularly in the frontier areas. This was mainly the consequence of heavy taxation which was not applied on the output of fields belonging to the church and to the nobility. Farmers were thus induced either to abandon their property or to transfer it to a monastery provided the latter was ready to allow them to keep from their production more than they were left after paying their taxes. It has to be stressed in this connection that as a rule the Byzantine Empire did not cash its receipts directly. Special agents were entrusted with this job which of course they did not perform without some profit increased unofficially by a supplementary amount charged to the former.

When reverting to the increased vitality of the Greek nation under Ottoman domination after the beginning of the XVIIth century the author refers to the fact that, at that time, the Greeks who had been obliged to withdraw in the mountains whose fertility was exceeded by the fertility of the plains and of the valleys they had abandoned after Ottoman pressure started moving. Their aims were first to settle on the sea shores as long as they were better prepared than their oppressors for shipping, second to get established in all those areas which were included within the Ottoman Empire or were even outside its boundaries where they were able to work in the tertiary sector. In some cases the Greeks started handcraft whenever they were better acquainted with the job than local people. The attraction to the sea was facilitated by the gradual expansion of Russia in the Southern seas particularly when, after the Kouitschouk Kanardji treaty, the Christian shipowners were allowed to sail under the protection of the Russian flag without ceasing to be subjects of the Ottoman Sultan. This aspect of the problem has not been sufficiently stressed by the author. Perhaps it may look curious that despite the terrible conditions under which the Greeks had to live under Ottoman yoke they could prosper and be induced to invest. Let us not forget however that under Nazi domination the Germans, I am not referring to those of Jewish origin, continued to develop their normal economic activity and even to prosper. It has also to be stressed that tyrannical governments not considering themselves as bound by law do not, as a rule, prevent the inhabitants of the country concerned to stop their economic activity. Of course some

cases may occur but every rule has its exceptions. It has to be added that the terrorist's activity in Italy at least during the last years constitutes an obstacle for the economy without however leading to a complete interruption of operation nor of expansion. Similar developments are noted from time to time in many Central or South American countries.

I should say that one of the best contributions of the author is his insistence on the importance of the Aegean Sea for the survival of Greece as an independent and flourishing state. Those who dare to recommend a division of the Aegean will be well advised to read the chapters concerned in Mr Spiridonakis' book. The latter has also successfully dealt first with the causes of the diminution of the Greeks before the middle of the XVIIIth century, namely the frequency of the plague, the expansion of malaria, emigration, malnutrition, islamisation, the child tribute, the lack of security, the enslavement, the constant exploitation and the frequent plundering by the Turks. The author is also able to explain the resurrection of the Greek nation after a very long servitude, the contribution of the mountain shelters, of the evasion possibilities through the sea, of the support of the Greek colonies all over Europe, of the success in trade and in shipping inducing those concerned to do their best also in fighting and in administration. The author shows the size of his historical and philosophical knowledge, his ability to apply it in the subject he has chosen, last but not least, his objectivity. I should conclude by recommending all those interested in the problems of the Eastern Mediterranean to read Mr Spiridonakis' book.

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Nancy Crawshaw, *The Cyprus Revolt: An Account of the Struggle for Union with Greece*, London, George Allen and Unwin, 1978, pp. 447.

The period of the *Enosis*, union with Greece, struggle occupies an important place in the long and episodic history of Cyprus. Those were melancholy years characterised by an atmosphere of fanaticism and acts of extreme nationalism and violence on the island. The elements included declining British colonialism versus the rising tides of nationalism and forces of self-determination. The island of Cyprus was transformed into a battleground between the forces and policies of a declining and desperate "empire" and the forces of local nationalism and independence. There is no doubt that Nancy Crawshaw's well-documented and thoroughly researched book is a very significant contribution to understanding that very important period of the history of Cyprus as well as to the knowledge of British colonial policy and administration.

The book is divided into eleven chapters with appendices, maps, index, and an extensive bibliography. It opens with a short, but very helpful to the general reader, chapter covering the earlier years of Cypriot history to the outbreak of the Second World War, proceeds with a thorough presentation and a detailed analysis of the enosis struggle to 1960, and ends with a synoptical account of the years since independence, from 1960 to 1976.

Mrs. Crawshaw is highly qualified for the writing of this book. As a reporter on Greek and Cypriot affairs for the Manchester Guardian, she was an eye-witness to many of the events described in her book and has known most of the leading protagonists of the enosis struggle. Indeed, Mrs. Crawshaw has established herself with this book as an outstanding authority on the Cyprus Revolt.