

THE LOMBARDS AND VENETIANS IN EUBOIA (1340—1470).

(Continued from Vol. VIII. page 213.)

II.

3.

(1340—1385.)

§ 45. *War of Venice and Genoa.*—The relations between Euboia and Attika continued to be peaceful. The Spanish lords of Athens had become less like a horde of robbers and more like a civilized community; they ceased to consort with Turks and infidels. Walter of Brienne indeed did not leave off his agitation against the Company, and he continued to importune Venice to form or join a league to restore him to his ducal seat. Venice however would not listen to him, and in 1344, when she bestowed on him the freedom of the city and allowed him to procure arms at Negroponte, she stipulated that such arms were not to be used against the Catalans. The Turks however continued their depredatory expeditions, and we learn that in 1341 Bartolommeo Ghisi, the Triarch, and the Duke of Naxos conjointly equipped a galley for the defence of the Archipelago and the coast of Euboia. It appears moreover that in 1343 Balzana Gozzadini, the widow of Pietro della Carceri, who acted as guardian for her son Giovanni, equipped another galley, and Negroponte itself was strengthened with new fortifications. These precautions seem to have protected the island efficiently for the next few years.

At peace with her neighbours, Euboia was destined to be seriously affected by hostilities from another quarter, for the war that broke out between the rival republics, Venice and Genoa, was carried on in the eastern as well as in the western waters of the Mediterranean, and seriously affected the island of Euboia, which was the headquarters, the chief *ὄρμητήριο* of Venice in the Aegean.

The Genoese, who had been engaged in hostilities with the Greek emperor Kantakuzenos, threw down the gauntlet to Venice in 1350 by confiscating some Venetian ships in Kaffa, her colony in the Black Sea. Venice sent Marco Ruzzini in command of thirty-five war-ships to the east, and at Negroponte, where he first arrived, he gained a success. A Genoese fleet of fourteen

sail, bound for Constantinople and the Pontos, put in at Alikastron¹ in Euboa. Ruzzini captured ten of the ships, and the remaining four escaped to Chios.² The prisoners, consisting of both nobles and commons (*nobiles et plebeii*), were imprisoned in Negroponte, and Ruzzini, encouraged by his success, sailed to the Propontis. He made an unsuccessful attempt on Galata, and then cruised in the Black Sea for plunder. His absence was fatal to Negroponte, which was left with but slender protection, and the enemy did not fail to take advantage of its defencelessness.

Four Genoese galleys, well equipped and armed, were despatched to Euboa. Venetian standards were hoisted, they sailed into the roads unsuspected, and entered Negroponte stealthily. First of all the prisoners were liberated from their captivity, then the town was plundered and set on fire. A large booty was obtained, and having hung up the keys of the town on the gate, the Genoese, well satisfied, sailed away. The capture of the ships by Ruzzini had taken place in September; the misfortune of Negroponte took place in November.

This event is remarkable as having led to a strange historical error on the part of a Greek writer of the following century. George Phrantzes, the historian of the last days of the Eastern Roman Empire, informs his readers that Euboa belonged to the Genoese since the year 1204!

The indignation of Venice was thoroughly roused by this humiliation, and she immediately set to work to form a league against her rival. The Emperor Kantakuzenos, whose relations with Genoa had been recently inimical, seemed an obvious ally; nevertheless he hesitated, but was induced to join in July, 1351, by the appearance of Nicolò Pisani and his fleet. Genoa had another enemy at the other extremity of the Mediterranean, Peter IV. of Aragon, whose sway in Sardinia had been troubled by revolts which Genoa had encouraged and assisted. He readily consented to join the league, and the treaty was arranged at Perpignan (Jan. 16, 1351). It was on this occasion that compensation was given to the heirs of Ramon Muntaner for the damages claimed by him in 1307. On the other hand Genoa took advantage of the fact that Istria was an apple of discord between Venice and the King of Hungary to excite the latter against her foe.

While Pisani plundered Genoese property at Constantinople, the Genoese admiral, Paganino Doria, had arrived off the north coast of Euboa with sixty-two ships. He invested Oreos in the middle of August, and the siege lasted two months, but he failed; for the place was strong, and he was opposed by Catalan auxiliaries from Attika, 300 cavalry as well as infantry, who were soon backed by the arrival of Pisani from the north, and finally by a Catalan fleet under the command of Pons de Santapan. In the meantime the Genoese had not omitted to plunder elsewhere in the neighbourhood, and among other places Ptelion suffered from their hostility.

¹ Perhaps near Aliweri, a place about eleven hours from Chalkis on the road to Karystos. The Greek steamers sailing from Athens to Wolo, *viâ* Chalkis, stop at Aliweri.

² So *Hist. Cortus.* p. 935 (Murat, vol. xii.). Matteo Villani wrongly gives the total number of Genoese ships as eleven, and the number of those taken as nine.

At the beginning of 1352 Pisa joined the Venetian alliance, and a month later (in February) an important general engagement took place near Byzantium, which was however indecisive. The Emperor Kantakuzenos, as the Venetians who had sailed westward after the battle were no longer on the spot to support him, made a separate peace with Doria, and agreed to abandon the league (May 6). He consequently refused to aid Pisani, who some months later appeared in the Bosphoros. An opportunity was thereby given to Joannês Palaiologos, son-in-law of the emperor, who looked upon himself as the rightful sovereign, to form an alliance with Venice, and thus take a decided attitude of opposition to his father-in-law. But few more hostilities took place in oriental regions before the peace, which was concluded between the republics in 1355—a peace to which Genoa almost forced Venice by her alliance with the Visconti of Milan. The terms of this peace did not concern Eubœia.

§ 46. *Domestic Affairs of Eubœia.*—In 1353 some arrangements were made regulating the internal affairs of the island: (1) The arrangement that the duty of keeping in trim the galleys for defending the island devolved on the triarchs and their vassals was confirmed. (2) Venice was henceforth to take upon herself the appointment of the custom officers. (3) The rebuilding of any house destroyed by the Genoese in 1350 was to secure to the builder a remission of half the ground rent for twenty-five years. (4) Venetians who had suffered in 1350 received offices in compensation. (5) Inhabitants of Eubœia who had exhibited bravery in the war received Venetian citizenship. In regard to the bestowal of citizenship another regulation was afterwards made in the same year, which applied to Crete, Modone, and Korone, as well as to Negroponte, to wit, that all fit persons might receive the citizenship for ten years, on condition they bore the same burdens as citizens, and renewed the oath every two years. In case they did not emigrate during that time the right would be granted for ever. The Jews were excepted from this grant.

The ceaseless depredations of the Turks, and the war with Genoa which followed, brought considerable confusion into the affairs of Eubœia. In 1348 there had been many complaints of the state of the island, especially of depopulation and severe taxation. A considerable number of peasants fled to Crete from the island of Anaphe—a significant indication of the condition of affairs. The island of Anaphe belonged to Giovanni dalle Carceri, the son and heir of Pietro, for whom his mother, Balzana Gozzadini, acted as guardian under the protection of the Venetian Bailo while his years were tender. Domenico Gozzadini, probably his mother's brother, afterwards acted as his general agent, and as the administration of two Thirds of the island was thus in his hands, received the appellation of *tutor* of Eubœia. The general outlook appeared so dreary to Giovanni at this time (1348—9) that he conceived the idea of selling a Third to the Duke of Naxos, Giovanni Sanudo. The negotiations however resulted not in the sale, but in the marriage of Giovanni with Sanudo's daughter Fiorenza, a large dowry in Eubœian property being bestowed on her.

In 1356 Venice, at length at peace, set to work to alleviate the misfortunes of the island. The Bailo was directed not to interfere in the feudal relations of the lords with their vassals. The triarchs were required to raze some useless edifices. The peasants of Anaphe were to be brought back from Crete. A new quarter was to be built for the Jews at Negroponte. A galley and another vessel were to be maintained at the joint cost of the triarchs and the Republic. The first galley that was provided met with ill luck on its way to Euboa, being captured by a flotilla of Turks, who acted in combination with Peter Fadrique of Salona. This Catalan lord was a notorious corsair, and it may be mentioned that some years before he had come into collision with Euboa by capturing and detaining in his dungeons a gentleman of that island, Cristofora da Medio.

§ 47. *Fiorenza Sanudo*.—Giovanni dalle Carceri died in 1358, leaving one son, Nicolò, heir to his baronies. His widow Fiorenza Sanudo was then a very important person, and a very attractive match. As guardian of her son Nicolò she was mistress of two Thirds of Euboa, and as only daughter of Giovanni Sanudo, she was heiress to the duchy of the Archipelago. But the Republic of St. Mark was determined that her hand was not to be at her own disposal; its interests were so closely bound up with her possessions that the personality of her husband would be a matter of serious consequence. Hence the affair of Fiorenza was a political problem of the Archipelago, which demanded the attention of the Doge and senate in the city on the lagoons; it became of a still more vital importance when her father the Duke of Naxos died in 1362.

The first suitor for her hand was Pietro Giustiniani Recanelli, one of the Maonesi of Chios. It may well be supposed that he was the last person who would find favour in the eyes of Venice. Had she married him the thin end of a Genoese wedge might have entered to cleave Euboa. Very energetic and unscrupulous measures were consequently taken to thwart this alliance. Fiorenza and Maria were warned by an official letter against the match, and it was hinted that a suitable husband could be found in Euboa or Crete. Orders were given to the Bailo Morosini to trepan Fiorenza to Negroponte and detain her there under arrest, in case she were disposed to dissent from the wishes of Venice; and if this could not be managed he was to sequester Oreos and the possessions of Nicolò. The orders went so far as to empower him, if the marriage should have already taken place, to seize Fiorenza's person and imprison her in Crete. But these measures of violence proved unnecessary. Before the end of the year Fiorenza declared that she was resolved not to accept a husband who was not also acceptable to Venice, and Recanelli was rejected.

But in the following year, after her father's death, a more celebrated suitor, though of a parvenu family, presented himself in the person of Rainerio, generally called Nerio, Acciajuoli, the nephew and adopted son of Nicolò the Florentine banker, who, rising by the favours of great ladies, had become grand seneschal of Achaia—well known by the spiteful and instructive description of Boccaccio. The acquisition of the Duchy of the Archipelago

was a prospect agreeable to the ambition of the Acciajuoli family, and in 1358, after the death of Fiorenza's husband, Nicolò had entertained the project of her marriage with his nephew Angelo, who however chose an ecclesiastical career.

Nerio's brother John, archbishop of Patras, wrote proposing the marriage of Nerio with Fiorenza, but he received a letter from Venice stating the promise of the duchess not to marry in opposition to the will of the Republic, and declining the proposed alliance. Meanwhile the Bailo of Negroponte had been directed to take measures to prevent the marriage, and the Duke of Crete received commands to take possession of the islands of the Duchy of the Archipelago.

The archbishop of Patras then wrote letters to Queen Joanna of Naples and to the titular emperor of Romania, Robert of Tarentum, who was nominally suzerain of the Archipelago in virtue of his title, appealing to them to intervene; and they both wrote protests to Venice, pressing the suit of Nerio and insisting that Fiorenza was the vassal of Robert, and that on receiving the permission of her overlord she was quite at liberty to dispose of her hand without consulting any other power. The senate of Venice (April 8, 1363) wrote a practically unanswerable reply, that Fiorenza was indeed nominally vassal of the emperor, but he had no means to protect her or interfere in her behalf; whereas she was a citizen of the Venetian commonwealth, and Venice had the means and will to protect her; furthermore, if reference be made to relations of past history, it was through Venetian assistance that her ancestors had acquired their duchy in the Aegean, and had been able to retain it; it was therefore fair that Venice should have the chief voice in the arrangement of the matter in question.

It is worth remarking that the position taken up by Venice in this letter, as the virtual protector in contrast with the nominal but powerless overlord, is quite similar to the position it had practically assumed in relation to the Lombard lords of Eubœia, who were nominally vassals of the Prince of Achaia, while Venice was their virtual protector.

As the sources for these transactions are official documents, we do not hear what were the sentiments of Fiorenza herself on this matter of such importance to her. Certain relations of the Sanudi of Naxos had taken up their abode in Eubœia, namely, Guglielmo Sanudo and his son Nicolò Spezzabanda; they had been recommended by Venice to the favour of the duchess. The Bailo now seized her person and consigned her to a place of security in Crete, while Spezzabanda presented himself at Venice and obtained permission to marry her. The nuptials were consummated at Venice early in 1364,¹ and a mutual engagement was made between Nicolò Spezzabanda and the Republic that the former should assist in putting down a revolt which was threatening the Venetian power in Kandia, while the latter bound itself to defend the islands of the duchy.

§ 48. *Hostilities with the Catalans.*—Venice had not yet succeeded in

¹ Two daughters were the fruit of this marriage, Maria and Elisabetta. The elder received Andros in 1371 after her mother's death, and was bound by the conditions to provide for her sister.

securing, though she had made several attempts, the strong castle of Karystos, which now belonged to the Spaniard Bonifaz Farique. Negotiations for the sale of the place were carried on about 1350, Venice offering 6,000 ducats, and it seems that the bargain was nearly brought to a conclusion, when the Genoese war intervened, and the affair was broken off. Venice again renewed her offers, and in 1359 Bonifaz definitely engaged himself to make over the castle to the Republic for 6,000 ducats, one restriction accompanying the sale—that the peasants transferred from Attika and settled at Karystos were not included in it. But Matteo Moncada,¹ who succeeded Ximenes de Arenos as governor (general vicar) of Attika, protested against the alienation of this strong place, and induced Bonifaz to cancel his engagement. A coolness ensued between Venice and the Company. The successor of Moncada, Roger de Loria, acted in such a way as to render war inevitable. He confiscated property to which Euboians had legal claims, he seized the possessions of one Basadonna, and in 1363 the Bailo declared war. On the other hand, the Bailo appears to have harboured and admitted to citizenship refugees from Attika, and to have prescribed a strict tariff for the sale in Euboia of certain articles of commerce imported from Attika. Both parties thought they had very good causes of complaint.

The Company once more resorted to its old policy and invoked the aid of the Ottoman Sultan Murâd, who was now in the middle of his successful career of conquest in the Balkan peninsula. The Turks, who had already reached Thessaly, entered Boiotia at Loria's invitation, took possession of Thebes, and wasted the land. But fortunately for Euboia, at this juncture Frederick, King of Sicily and Duke of Athens, deposed Loria and made Moncada once more his representative, with injunctions to protect the territories of the Company against the infidels. Moncada received the post for life, but not choosing to live at Athens himself, he entrusted the government to representatives; in 1365 he placed it in the hands of his predecessor, Roger de Loria. Loria was not inclined to coquette again with the Turks; he was inclined, on the contrary, to bring about a peace with Venice. He demanded 6,000 ducats in compensation for injuries of which he complained; but the answer of Venice was a bill of damages which reached a much higher figure. The differences did not immediately receive a final settlement, but the old treaty was renewed for the time. Soon after this Venice obtained at last the coveted castle of Karystos for the sum that she had always offered before—6,000 ducats (Nov. 6, 1365). She placed a garrison in it immediately, but in a few years it was found to cost so much to maintain the place that she would have been glad to let it as a fief, and failing that, she reduced the garrison and the expenses as far as possible. For Venice the chief importance of possessing Karystos seems to have been that others were thereby precluded from holding it.

Negroponte did not come into hostile collision with the Catalan Company

¹ Jacob Fadrique, Count of Sula, was governor 1356-1359, Arenos succeeded in 1359, M. Moncada followed in 1359, and Roger de Loria in 1361 (to 1363).

again, although the nephews of Walter de Brienne, who thought they inherited his pretensions to Attika, did all they could to persuade the Venetian Republic to assist them in wresting the duchy from the Spaniards. These nephews belonged to the house of Enghien—Guy of Argos and John of Enghien-Lecce. They applied to Venice in 1370 to support their operations in the neighbourhood, and on receiving a polite refusal they applied yet more importunately in 1371. But Venice had no intention of supporting their almost obsolete claims, and would not consent to involve herself in war by lending the bridge of Negroponte, as John of Enghien-Lecce proposed, to the passing of a confederate army into the dominions of the Spaniards. In the same year Loria died, and as Moncada, the nominal governor, continued to be an absentee, the post was given to Matteo Peralta, and before the end of the year a peace was arranged between the Enghien family and the Catalan Company by the intervention of the Bailo of Euboa, and sealed by the marriage of Maria, Guy's only daughter, with John de Loria, who was to succeed to the lordship of Argos and Nauplion.

§ 49. *The Navarrese Company.*—In the meantime a man of more energy and ability than the Enghien brothers had likewise conceived the idea of depriving the Catalans of the duchy of Athens and Neopatrai. This was Rainerio Acciajuoli, already mentioned as a suitor of the Duchess Fiorenza. He was now chatelain of Corinth, and had married, with the consent of the Bailo of Negroponte, Agnese, the daughter of an Euboian nobleman, Saracino de' Saracini. Pursuing fugitive subjects of his own who had fled to Athenian territory, he came into collision with the Spaniards. The war began in 1374, and Rainerio succeeded in taking Megara, the halfway house between Corinth and Athens. In the following year Peralta died, and was succeeded by Louis Fadrique, Count of Sula and Zeitun, who however was not appointed by the King of Sicily, but elected by the Catalan subjects in Attika. During the next few years Rainerio appears to have remained quiet; the acquisition of Megara satisfied him for a time.

Meanwhile an event happened which directed the attention of Athens and Thebes to the distant west more than to their neighbours in Greece. This was the death of King Frederick in 1377 without male issue, whereby the Sicilian branch of the Aragon royal family came to a full stop. He had one daughter, Matilda, to whom he bequeathed his kingdom and duchies; but this was not agreeable to most of the nobles both in Sicily and Attika, who looked with favour on the claims of Peter, King of Aragon. In 1381 an envoy from Athens appeared at Saragossa, offering homage to Peter in the name of the Company, on condition of his promising to maintain the usages of the land. And thus Peter became Duke of Athens and Neopatrai, and though the duchy passed out of his hands into those of the Florentine, Nerio Acciajuoli, in the space of four years, he not only retained the title himself, but his successors down to the present century have called themselves, as well as Kings of Aragon and Spain, Dukes of Athens and Neopatrae.

But in the meantime a new enemy had appeared on the scene and created general alarm and dismay. This was the Navarrese Company, an

organization consisting of adventurers of much the same character as the members of the more celebrated Catalan Grand Company. They were mercenary soldiers collected in Navarre by Jacob de Baux, titular Emperor of Romania, and sent to the east to recover his dominions along with Maiotto Coccarelli, whom he named Bailli of Achaia. The most important of their captains was Peter of San Superan. Having taken Corfù, they proceeded to invade Attika (1380), and at first met with a success, which terrified not only the Spaniards but the neighbouring powers. Livadia and other strong places fell into their hands; Galceran Peralta, the captain of Athens, on whom the defence of the duchy mainly devolved, was taken prisoner.

The opportunity was favourable to make an attempt upon Eubœia, for Venice, being just at that time engaged in a serious war with Genoa, could not expend much energy in defending the island. Moreover, Nicolò dalle Carceri, the Triarch, took advantage of this state of things to recur to the old examples of his grandfather Pietro, and of Bonifacio da Verona, and treat surreptitiously with the Navarrese against the interests of Venice. It was the last kick of the Triarchs; three years later Venice had it all her own way. The Margrave of Bodonitza, who had shown a rebellious spirit towards the governor of Athens, seems to have acted in the same manner as Nicolò. But the danger that menaced Eubœia was averted by the escape of Galceran Peralta, who immediately organised the defence of the Acropolis and constrained the Navarrese Company (we do not clearly know by what steps) to evacuate the land before the end of the year. They then proceeded to the Peloponnesos, where they met with greater success than in Attika. By the year 1383, when their employer, Jacob de Baux, the last titular Emperor of Romania, died, Morea was divided among four powers—the Venetians of Modone and Korone, the Greeks of Misithra, the châtelain of Argos, and the Navarrese under San Superan; we may add a fifth—Nerio Acciajuoli of Corinth.

When Peter of Aragon was recognised as Duke of Athens, he nominated to the post of governor Philip Dalman de Roccaberte, who soon placed the relations of the Company with the surrounding powers on a satisfactory footing—with the châtelain of Corinth and the margrave of Bodonitza, as well as with the Bailo of Eubœia. In 1382 he returned to Sicily, and was succeeded by Raimond de Vilanova.

§ 50. *The Turks*.—As the power of the Turks was steadily increasing and their encroachments on the possessions of the Europeans advancing every day—Murâd had taken Hadrianople in 1365—the Greek Emperor Joannes Palaiologos and the Latin powers were endeavouring to get up a general organised resistance. The Greek Emperor was making a begging tour in the west (1369), as the Latin Emperor Baldwin II. had done a hundred years before, and did not scruple to promise to desert the Greek and join the Latin Church on condition that the Pope and the Latin powers of the west assisted him against the formidable enemy of Europe. The depredations of the Ottomans, to which Eubœia and the islands of the Archipelago were especially exposed, made life generally so unsafe that men were unwilling to trust their lives in those regions except the risks they ran were well paid. This was the case in

Eubœia. No Venetian would accept a civil appointment there save for a salary considerably higher than that usually paid in 1369. Such was the state of things that Venice sent a commission to inquire into the affairs of Eubœia, Ptelion, Modone and Korone, in order that those important stations—the right hand and right eye of the Republic—might be made strong to resist the foe. The galley of Eubœia was manned anew, the Bailo was admonished to be watchful and report diligently to headquarters, troops were sent from Venice—these preparations spreading over several years, one of which (1374) was marked by a plague which made inroads into the population of the island.¹

Pope Gregory XI. issued in 1372 (November) a bull summoning notables of Romania to a congress at Thebes, which was to consult on common measures for resisting the progress of the Turks. Among the others who were invited by the Pope to discuss the ‘eternal question,’ and met at Thebes on the 1st of October, 1373, were Nicolò dalle Carceri, Triarch of Eubœia and Duke of Naxos (his mother had died in 1371), Fr. Giorgio, margrave of Bodonitza, Matteo Peralta, governor of Athens, F. Gattilusio of Lesbos, Nerio Acciajuoli of Corinth, &c. The congress, however, like most of the plans of united action against the Turk so often proposed in the 14th and 15th centuries, had no serious results.

§ 51. *Some internal affairs of Eubœia.*—In the year 1359 Nicolò Spezzabanda, who afterwards married Fiorenza Sanudo, appeared in Venice as the bearer of certain complaints preferred by the Triarchs of Eubœia against the conduct of the Bailo. The complaints were that the Bailo interfered in matters which belonged exclusively to the feudal jurisdiction of the lords of the land (contrary to the express arrangement of 1356); that he was in the habit of reversing sentences which the podestà of the Lombards had enounced; that he persecuted their officials and had imprisoned the châtelain of Larachi, Demetrios of Alessandria. Venice, however, declined to entertain these complaints seriously, knowing that if she did not give general powers to the Bailo and trust a good deal to his judiciousness the island would become a ‘den of robbers.’

In 1361 fresh complaints were lodged to the effect that the Baili might be more polite than they were to the Lombard and other lords and ladies, who had for example been on one occasion menaced with fines if they did not appear in the church of San Marco. Bailo Pietro Morosini was especially accused of having misapplied the duties on oil which should have been employed for the maintenance of the Eubœian galley. Quarrels further arose in regard to certain land close to Negroponte which lay between the Venetian quarter and the lands of the dalle Carceri. Venice tried to place things on a better footing. Cottages which were built on the disputed land were pulled down, and thereby the territory of the triarchs stretched without question up to what was equally without question Venetian house-property. It was

¹ It may be observed that in 1375 the Bailo Quirini was guilty of misconduct which was punished by a fine. He (1) employed the public

galley for private purposes, (2) permitted the export of corn, though the supply was deficient, (3) received presents.

arranged that the civil magistrates of Venice were never to interfere in military matters. Henceforth the symposion which was held at Negroponte in honour of a newly-appointed Bailo was to be held at the sole expense of Venice; the triarchs were no longer expected to contribute.

At this time Venice began to extend her citizenship to Euboian lords: Alessio de' Tiberti received it in 1361, Saracino de' Saracini in 1370. Moreover the position of the Jews was made less intolerable. They were relieved from some land-taxes, and the old custom of shutting them up in the Ghetto on Good Friday was discontinued. A Jew named Moses was state physician.

As for the little settlement at Ptelion in Thessaly, its population was mainly Greek, and the chief danger which threatened it at this time was the hostilities of the Albanese, who were settled in Thessaly, and were soon after this destined to spread southwards, and in the beginning of the next century to repopulate Euboia. Ptelion was governed by a rettore, but it devolved upon the Bailo of Euboia to have an eye to its wellbeing.

The constant raids of the Turks tended to depopulate Euboia, and in the years 1379—1381 Venice was unable to watch as carefully over its interests as usual owing to the great Genoese war, which culminated in the blockade of Venice and the unexpected victory of Chioggia, with which Carlo Zeno, who had been Bailo of Euboia two years before, will always be associated. The apple of discord which led to this war was the small but important island of Tenedos, which commands the entrance to the Dardanelles. Andronikos, the rebellious son of the Emperor Joannes V., handed it over to the Genoese, who supported him in ascending the throne; but the Venetians adhered to the old emperor, and the governor of Tenedos admitted a Venetian garrison. In 1381 the Peace of Turin concluded the war, and one of the provisions was that Tenedos should be surrendered to Genoa. But a Venetian individual, Pantaleone Barbo, who had received the post of Bailo of Constantinople, induced the captain of the garrison to refuse to give up the place. The prompt action of Genoa in confiscating the goods of Florentine citizens who were security for the fulfilment of the terms of the Peace, constrained them to proceed against its captain as an enemy. He was obliged to capitulate (1383); the fortress was razed to the ground, the island became a desert, and the inhabitants were transferred, some to Crete, others to the neighbourhood of Karystos in Euboia, where they were treated with consideration.

After the Peace of Turin the troops in Euboia were disbanded, the salary of the rettore of Ptelion was lowered, and Venice entertained ideas of destroying the castle of Larmena, which she found very expensive. There seemed a prospect that the island would recover its prosperous condition.

§ 52. *Euboia becomes completely Venetian.*—In 1372 Nicolò dalle Carceri married Petronella Tocco, daughter of Leonardo Tocco, Duke of Leukadia Fiorenza, Nicolò's mother, had died in the preceding year, and he had become Duke of Naxos as well as Triarch of Euboia. While he resided in Negroponte and managed his property there himself, he employed his uncle, Januli Gozzadini, as his agent for the administration of the duchy. The marriage of

his stepsister Maria, the daughter of Fiorenza and Nicolò Spezzabanda, was now almost as much a matter of concern to the wideawake Republic of Venice as the marriage of her mother had been fifteen years before. The Bailo of Eubœia, Bartolommeo Quirini, wooed her for his son with the consent of Nicolò dalle Carceri, but when the government of Venice heard of the affair the Bailo was punished. The husband whom Venice would have desired for Maria was Giorgio Ghisi, the son and heir of the Triarch Bartolommeo.

In 1383 an event occurred which introduced a change into the condition of Eubœia—the death of Nicolò dalle Carceri. He was hunting in the island of Naxos, according to one account, when he was slain by Francesco Crispo, the proprietor of the barony of Astrofidis in Eubœia; according to another account the deed was done within the walls of the city of Naxos itself. Crispo had married a niece of Carceri, Fiorenza Sanudo, the daughter of the Duke of Melos, and received that island as her dowry (1376). He reaped good fruit from his deed of violence. The islanders of the Archipelago elected him as their new duke, Nicolò having no legal issue; and Venice, which Nicolò had offended by his collusion with the Navarrese Company three years before, closed her eyes to the manner in which Nicolò had come by his death and supported Francesco, who respectfully asked for her recognition of his new title. Francesco also applied for a galley and provisions from Eubœia, and proposed the marriage of his son with a daughter of the Doge, Antonio Venier. The family of the Crispi were Dukes of Naxos for one hundred and eighty years.

The death of the Triarch—who possessed two Thirds of the island—without heirs was a very favourable opportunity for Venice. She took, however, no sudden measure, but proceeded with the greatest caution. The Bailo received orders to sequester the Barony of Oreos for Maria Sanudo of Andros, the step-sister of the deceased, whose marriage was now of far greater consequence, and to convey her to Eubœia or Crete, lest she should take a step without the concurrence of Venice. The Republic desired to place all the Lombard lords in the position of vassals to herself as mistress of the whole island. To do this without the consent of the Emperor of Romania, Jacob de Baux, would have been theoretically a breach of the feudal organisation, dating from 1204; it would have been an unwarrantable violence. In theory the Triarchs were still vassals of the Prince of Achaia, though the relation had long ceased to have any practical import. Therefore a Venetian noble, Giovanni Sorango, was selected to apply to the Emperor for the grant of the two Thirds of Eubœia of the dalle Carceri (formerly of the da Verona) in fief. But just at this juncture the last titular Latin Emperor of Constantinople died, so that no theoretical bond restrained the action of Venice any longer.

Others as well as Venice had their eyes on the Eubœian fiefs. The triarch Bartolommeo Ghisi applied for them to the Baili Coccarelli, as the representative of Jacob de Baux; and a relation of the dalle Carceri, one Januli d'Anoe, claimed a share of the spoil. But though Ghisi went in person to Venice, and was treated with friendship, his application was not

entertained. It was not till 1385 that one Third was conceded to Maria Sanudo and the other to Januli d'Anoe—to both as vassals of Venice. We hear that Maria Sanudo granted the castle and village of Larachi to her relation, Filippo Sanudo. The widow of Nicolò dalle Carceri, Petronella Jocco, received Lipsos (Aidepsos) and Litadha in north Euboia; she afterwards married Nicolò Venier, the son of the Doge.

In the following year, 1386, the barony of Karystos was rented to three brothers, Michele, Andrea, and Giovanni Giustiniani. Since its acquisition by Venice in 1365 the fortress had been allowed to fall into decay, as the expenses of maintaining it were found too heavy, and the plan of renting it to private individuals was adopted, but did not benefit the place much, as the Giustiniani did not keep it in better repair.

Thus in 1385 two Thirds of Euboia, as well as the barony of Karystos, had passed into the hands of Venice, and of the old Terzieri there only remained Bartolommeo Ghisi III., who probably died about this time. As he left only a son of minor age, Giorgio, and as Giorgio died in 1390, bequeathing his possessions to Venice—probably under Venetian pressure—we may set down 1385 as the year in which a wholly Venetian sway succeeded to the joint sway of the Venetians and Lombards.

One of the first acts of Venice, now that she had a free hand in Euboian affairs, was to relieve the Greek clergy from a tax which they had been compelled to pay to the Latin patriarch, who was also the Bishop of Negroponte.

At about the same time that Euboia became Venetian, Venice was fortunate enough to make another acquisition also. In 1386 she won Corfù, which was as important to her in the Ionian Sea as Euboia in the Aegean.

III.

(1385—1470.)

§ 53. *The Euboian vassals of Venice, 1385—1470.*—Venice thought it expedient to publish a proclamation that claimants to the Third of Euboia, which Giorgio Ghisi bequeathed, along with Tenos and Mykonos to the Republic in 1390, should apply to the Bailo. No one apparently applied.¹ It was decided in 1392, at the express wish of the inhabitants of Tenos and Mykonos, that those islands should not be sold, but an Euboian governor should be appointed for them annually.² It is worth noting that these two islands were the last possessions of Venice in the Aegean, not passing to the Turks until the Treaty of Passarovitz in 1718. 'Many remains,' says Hopf, 'of Venetian dominion and Venetian life have maintained themselves to the present day in Tinos; not only does the whole form (*Typus*) of the town, and even the church of Madonna Panagia, which was built only in our own time, suggest Venice, but still more the remarkable, genuinely Venetian urbanity of

¹ A pretender appeared in 1446, but his claims were rejected.

² A different arrangement was made some years later.

the whole population.' In regard to the Third of the Ghisi Venice did not act in the same way as it acted in regard to the other two Thirds. The will of Giorgio and the fact that no claimant pressed his rights seemed to give more unrestricted powers to Venice. No lord or lady with the semblance, though without the real or nominal independence, of a Triarch was invested with this Third. It seems to have been divided into a number of small fiefs, whose holders obtained their investiture directly from the Bailo.

Januli d'Anoe was succeeded in his Third by his son Nicolò in 1394, who was followed in direct line by Januli II., 1426; Gioffredo, 1434; Januli III., 1447—1470.

The Third which had been granted Maria Sanudo, and was at first disputed by Nicolò dalle Carceri's widow, Petronella Tocco, was managed for her by Filippo Sanudo, lord of Larachi, who was made châtelain of Oreos by Venice in 1416. Maria married Gasparo Sommaripa, and her son Crusino Sommaripa succeeded to her Third in 1426. She had transferred to him the islands Paros and Antiparos in 1414. He was not however formally invested with the Euboian fief by Venice until 1433 (Aug. 27). He died in 1462, and was succeeded by his son Nicolò, who retained the Third until the Turkish occupation, 1470.

According to the explanation of the distribution of the Thirds which I put forward in the first part of this paper (vol. vii. p. 323), the two Thirds of Nicolò dalle Carceri must have consisted of the central Third, of one Sixth in the north, and one Sixth in the south. The question arises as to how this property was divided between Januli d'Anoe and Maria Sanudo. In the first place it is clear that Maria Sanudo received the northern Sixth, for the Bailo sequestered the barony of Oreos after Nicolò's death in her interest, and all the details we have point to this. In the second place we might naturally expect that instead of reverting to the old arrangement that subsisted before Pietro dalle Carceri, by which the barony of Oreos went along with a Sixth in the south, and the central Third remained compact, Venice might divide the central Third and give the northern half, along with the barony of Oreos, to Maria, the southern half, along with the Sixth in south Euboa, to Januli d'Anoe. Thereby the great advantage of a continuous territory would be secured to Maria.

All we can be certain of is that Venice retained Oreos, Vallona, and other places in its own hands; that Larachi in central Euboa, near the Lelantine plain, belonged to the portion of Maria Sanudo, for we hear that she granted it to Filippo Sanudo.¹ Xilili, near Vallona, was also included in her inheritance, as it is mentioned expressly in the grant to Crusino Sommaripa in 1433, as well as Litadha (Lithada) and half of Larachi. One feels inclined to identify Vallona with Avalona, and recognise in it the modern Avlonari (*αὐλωνάριον*, from *αὐλών*, 'defile, glen,' apparently). If this be so Venice, in making the new divisions, does not seem to have followed the old landmarks, but to have treated the two Thirds as a collection of disjointed fiefs, and so

¹ After his death it was granted to Pietro Zeno of Andros.

parcelled them out to Maria and Januli, perhaps in not very equal portions. Lipsos was added to the possessions of Sommaripa in 1442.

As for Karystos, Michele Giustiniani died in 1402, and as his two brothers, the co-tenants, were both dead before 1406, Venice invested with it Nicolò Giorgio, who afterwards became margrave of Bodonitza.¹ In 1436 we learn that his rent was lowered from 1337 to 737 hyperpers, because the plague had devastated his property in 1432. On his part he undertook to keep Pantelene in an efficient state of defence. But he died in the same year, and his son, Jacopo Marchesotto, received the investiture, and held the place until 1447, when he was succeeded by his son Antonio, who was driven out by the Turks in 1470.

There was a village in Eubœia called li Zeppi, or Ychiptos, which belonged to Nicolò Venier, who married Petronella Tocco, and in 1403 he received permission to build a tower there. Through his influence Venice forced Maria Sanudo to pay Petronella 6000 ducats as widow's portion, threatening to seize Larachi if she refused. Petronella died before 1411, and in that year Venier married a daughter of Maffeo Premarini—one of the Premarini of Keos—who had been appointed captain of Vallona in 1401, and had that office secured to him for life in 1413.²

The usual term of the leases granted by Venice was twenty-nine years. For example in 1408 Guglielmazzo della Gronda received la Vathia on this condition, and in 1437 when the lease expired he met with a refusal when he wished to renew it, because he had been remiss in paying the rent which amounted to 2,000 hyperpers. La Vathia lay about two hours to the south of Eretria on the road to Karystos; a village still remains called Vátheia (see Baedeker's *Griechenland*), and there are remains of medieval chapels in the neighbourhood. Venice granted the place to Nikolaos Plati, in preference to della Gronda, but when the latter strongly protested he was allowed to renew his lease in 1438. This led to a counter protest on the part of Plati; and the consequence was that it was again given to him in 1444. Guglielmazzo was dead, but his son Jacopo protested again, and the Bailo was enjoined to investigate the rights of the case in 1445. As Plati's solvency proved also not altogether satisfactory, the place was finally granted to Jacopo della Gronda in 1450.

Many members of noble Venetian families lived in Eubœia at this period. Morosinis, Veniers, Premarinis held fiefs. There were the Giustinianis and the da Canales. Pietro da Canale married Nicoletta Venier and obtained Vumi (? Kumi), in the tenure whereof he was succeeded by his son and his grandson, of whom the latter, Pietro, married Fiorenza Premarini and was made Bailo of Korfù in 1475. Donato Giustiniani (1376—1411) won Stura by marrying a Eubœian lady named Cristina; and his son and grandson held it after him. The family of Moro was also Venetian. Jacopo Marchesotto

¹ His father Francesco Giorgio had possessions in Eubœia.

² Vallona was an important fortress for the defence of the island. The captain of Vallona

used to reside in la Kuppa. Maffeo was probably succeeded in the post by his son Tommaso 1436—1460, and his grandson Antonio.

of Karystos, whom we mentioned above, married the daughter of Antonio Moro in 1431.

Nor were all the branches of the Lombard and other Italian families which had come to Eubœia in the thirteenth century extinct. There were the Saracini, of whom Nerio Acciajuoli chose a daughter for his bride. There were the Scolos, the Francos, the Bertis, and others. There were Greek families also. A Greek nobleman Agapito had a tower at Lithada. A place called S. Giovanni delle Finice near Vallona was in the hands of Peruli de Lisauria and his son Polimeno.

§ 54. *Venetian Rule in Negroponte*.—Among the Venetian authorities themselves in Eubœia things did not always go smoothly. Gabrieli Emo the Bailo of Negroponte from 1391 to 1393 was in constant feud with his councillors, who accused him of designs of making himself lord of Eubœia. Both he and they were condemned in 1394. It is remarkable that in 1399 the salary of the Bailo was temporarily raised in order to procure the services of a specially able man, in view of the hostilities which subsisted then with Antonio Duke of Athens.

Many changes and improvements were made about this time. An arsenal was constructed at Negroponte in 1388, so that Eubœia had no longer to rely entirely on the arsenal of Crete, from which it had been necessary to procure whatever vessels were required. Joannes Philopagios who could read and write Latin and Greek excellently was appointed interpreter at Negroponte in 1390, as the intercourse with the Greeks had increased.

The Jews had rapidly increased in Eubœia, and had gradually acquired a very large portion of landed property, so that Venice felt some alarm at their growth and did not wish to encourage them. Citizenship was not granted to them. In 1399 they were forbidden to exact interest higher than 12 per cent. In 1410 the tax of 500 hyperpers which was levied on them was raised to 1,000. On the other hand, their privileges were renewed in 1440, and in 1452 as Jews of Oreos and Karystos complained of persecution, it was commanded that equal justice should be dealt to Jews as to Christians, and at the same time the custom of selecting the executioner from the Jews was abolished.

At the beginning of the fifteenth century the Albanese colonisation began, for the population had dwindled and demanded to be replenished. Grants of land and freedom from taxes were held out as lures to Albanese immigrants. At the same time the *καπνικόν* or hearth-tax (50 soldi) was abolished, as it was found so oppressive that more than a hundred families had left or intended to leave the island. The requisition of military service in defence of the island from males over eighteen years was substituted for the tax. It is interesting to note that it was discovered in 1415 that the receipts derived from Negroponte by the Venetian exchequer were nearly 10,000 hyperpers less than the expenditure, and therefore a part of the mercenary forces were dismissed.

Purple fisheries flourished at this time in the neighbourhood of Chalkis (which some have wished to connect with *κάλαχη*), and a law was passed in

1410 forbidding stones to be broken in those parts of the Euripos where these fisheries were carried on. In the same year the Euripos was dredged and deepened at the cost of the population of Negroponte.

In 1413 Polimeno de Lisauria presented a petition to Venice on behalf of the Euboian vassals; and she promised to enforce no new burden, to govern justly and provide diligently for the defence of the island.

About the year 1420 a commission of citizens was appointed to examine the Assizes of Romania. It was not until 1451 that two copies were presented to the Venetian Senate, one of which consisted of the original 147 titles, while the other contained also thirty-seven more with special reference to the relations of Euboia. When Archbishop Nicolaos Protimo (the Protimos were a Euboian family) had compared the copies, they were confirmed by the Senate in 1452. It was late in the day to provide an accurate code for the administration of justice: Negroponte was taken by the Turks only eighteen years later.

§ 55. *Hostilities with the Duke of Athens and the Despot of Mistra.*—For nearly a hundred years after it had become part of the dominion of Venice, the island of Euboia remained in her hands before passing to the Ottoman Sultan. The history of this time is only a record of measures taken for defence against the continual menaces or actual depredations of the Turks, and of negotiations with the other Christian powers in Greece to whose system Euboia belonged, namely the Acciajuoli of Athens, the Navarrese and the Greeks of the Peloponnesos.

In the same year in which the new order of things in Euboia began, Rainerio Acciajuoli achieved his project of displacing the Spanish rule in Attika and becoming Duke himself. He had hardly established himself in the duchy when Venice sent a certain Dr. Giovanni Alberti to remonstrate with him for allowing Turkish corsairs which plundered Euboia to find harbourage in Megara.¹ Rainerio had not yet consolidated his dominions, and his temporary weakness, not ill-will to Venice, was the cause of his unresisting reception of the Turkish pirates.

He undertook to maintain a ship for the defence of Euboia as well as of his own property and even offered to place it under the command of a Venetian; and not long afterwards he and the Bailo won a considerable naval victory over the Turks. But a few years later Nerio was again suspected of dealings with the infidels; he did not offer any opposition to the invasion of the Morea² by Evrenos Begri, 1388.

A new set of complications now ensued, in which Euboia was entangled. Although Nerio had driven from Athens and Thebes the Catalans who were

¹ In the years 1382—3 the Turks depredated his Corinthian territory and he was led to apply to the Bailo of Euboia for a galley, for which he consented to pay 8,000 ducats a year. This was supplied to him 1383 from the arsenal of Crete. Note that the annual rent of a galley was much larger than the purchase price of a

strong castle like Karystos.

² In regard of this invasion Venice formed a plan of organising an anti-Turkish coalition. But as the Servians diverted the attention of Murâd from Morea for the time, the project was not prosecuted.

the old enemy of the Navarrese, he did not on that account win the goodwill of the latter, who were now the strongest power in Morea. They had attacked Attika once themselves with intent to enter in and possess, and that fruitless attempt seemed to them a title to the Duchy. Nerio, aware of the unfriendly feelings and designs of Peter of S. Superan, naturally allied himself with Theodoros, the Despot of Mistra, the rival of the Navarrese in the Peloponnesos, to whom he gave his younger daughter Bartolommea in marriage.

This alliance involved Nerio in hostilities with Venice, and drove Venice to the alliance of the Navarrese.

The occasion of this complication was the death of Pietro Comaro, lord of Argos and Nauplion. Neither the lordship of Nerio Acciajuoli, their neighbour on one side, nor that of Theodoros, their neighbour on the other, were acceptable to the people of those places, and they were afraid lest either one or the other should take advantage of the unprotected condition of the land and the young widow of Pietro, Maria d'Enghien. And so, to escape the possibility of Greek or Florentine rule, they placed themselves under the protection of the lion of San Marco. Venice was pleased with the chance of securing Nauplion, a very favourable position for promoting her power in the Morea; and it would be a serious matter if Acciajuoli, more than suspected of unhallowed dealings with the infidels, were allowed to extend his already too large dominion. At the end of 1388 a decree was passed in the Senate, resolving to take possession of Nauplion and buy the barony of Maria d'Enghien, for which she and her heirs should receive 500 ducats a year, she herself moreover in addition to this should receive 200 a year, and should have the right of disposing of 2,000 in her will: on her part she was required to promise to marry none but a Venetian.

In the meantime Theodoros occupied Argos and refused to give it up. Early in 1389 Perazzo Malipiero was sent from Venice to the East in the capacity of provveditore of Argos and Nauplion, with directions to apply for assistance to the Navarrese, to the archbishop of Patras, to the Slavic races of Maina, in case Theodoros should persist in retaining Argos, now the legitimate possession of Venice. Nerio Acciajuoli, though he was an adopted citizen of Venice, supported and encouraged his ally Theodoros; and we have the curious spectacle of the Greek despot refusing to give up the place without the consent of the Ottoman Sultan Murâd. All commercial relations were immediately suspended between the Venetian settlements in the East and the lands of Nerio and Theodoros. The bridge of Chalkis, connecting Attika and Euboa, was closed. Mistra and Athens no longer received iron from Modone and Korone. The figs and raisins of Attika found no market in Euboa.

In the summer a new turn was given to the situation. The wily San Superan beguiled the Duke of Athens into his clutches and placed him in confinement. The next months were occupied with attempts to obtain his release, for which purpose his friends and relatives moved heaven and earth. His wife Agnese Saracino, Cardinal Angelo Acciajuoli, the Despot Theodoros,

his native city Florence, the Pope himself interceded with Venice to induce her to intercede with San Superan. Venice would do nothing until Argos were surrendered; on the other hand (1390) she concluded a treaty with the Navarrese. We need not follow the ins and outs of the negotiations which ended in the release of Nerio on certain conditions; of which the most important were the transference of Megara to Venice and the engagement to try to induce Theodoros to surrender Argos. The first of these was carried out; and the second also was fulfilled but without effect. The bridge of Negroponte was reopened and the trade with Attika renewed.

It was not until 1394 that Theodoros consented to give up the apple of discord to Venice. The position of Theodoros had become precarious on account of the rebellious spirit of the Greek archons, and this induced him to be more yielding. In the meantime Rainerio remained on good terms with Venice until his death which took place in 1394. He died soon after he had formally received the title of Duke, which he had from the first usurped, from King Ladislas of Naples who considered himself the rightful Prince of Achaia. At the same time Ladislas released him from the relation of vassaldom in which the Duchy of Athens and Neopatrai stood to the Principality of Achaia.

In his will Nerio left the city of Athens to the Church of our Lady on the Acropolis—the Parthenon had been turned to this use—and placed the church of Athens under the protection of Venice. It was a very unique testament.

§ 56. *Venetian occupation of Attika.*—Two and a half years before the death of Nerio the Turks again threatened Attika and Euboa. The islands of the Aegean were plundered, and in May 1393 Evrenos Bey entered Attika and forced Nerio to pay tribute to the Sultan. Nerio sent a messenger to Venice, and Venice sent him on to the Pope, and the Pope preached a crusade against the Turks, especially those who had taken up their abode in the dominions of the Duke of Athens. When Nerio died, the Turks seized the opportunity to occupy Athens. Evrenos himself passed southwards into the Peloponnesos to assist his Navarrese allies, but the 'City of the Philosophers,' as it is called by the Turkish writers who inform us of this fact, was taken and plundered by Timur-Tasch, at the instance and under the guidance of the Greek archbishop of Athens, Makarios, who was afterwards punished for his treachery by Venice. The Acropolis was defended by a brave garrison but could not hold out long without assistance. A deputation was sent to the Bailo of Euboa, begging him to occupy Athens on behalf of Venice, to whose protection the late Duke had recommended it. Andrea Bembo, the Bailo, acceded to the entreaty and soon after the beginning of 1395 we find that the Turks were no longer in the city.

Venice organised an administration for Athens under a podestà and a captain. The first podestà was Albano Contarini.¹ Money was provided and

¹ The Venetian podestàs of Athens were—A. 1399, Ermolao Contarini, 1399—1400, Nicolò Contarini, 1395—1397, Lorenzo Vitturi, 1397— Vitturi 1400—1402.

men were enlisted for the defence of Attika and Euboa against the Ottoman invasions, which were all the more certain, as the bastard Antonio Acciajuoli who succeeded his father Nerio in Boeotia, and desired to succeed him in Attika also, entered into a league with Evrenos Bey for the purpose of expelling the Venetian protectorate. In 1402 he succeeded in this design. Fifty knights of Euboa had ridden to the rescue, but in vain, and before June the city, all but the Acropolis, was in the hands of Antonio. Venice resorted to the expedient of gaining help from the Turks, but just at that time the attention of Bajesid had been diverted from European affairs by the Mongolian danger in Asia. The battle of Angora in the same year relieved for a while the Latin and Romaic states of Greece from the suspended sword of the unbeliever.

§ 57. *Antonio Acciajuoli*.—The loss of Attika, which it had held for seven years, appeared very serious to the Venetian senate; it trembled for the safety of the beloved Euboa. A resolution was passed to take the most active measures to succour the Podestà Vitturi who still held the Acropolis and pursue Antonio to the death into his own country. It was dangerous that Boeotia should be in the hands of a man as unscrupulous as he in his dealings with the Turks. The sum of 3,000 ducats was given to the Bailo of Euboa to execute these decisions, and a price was set on the head of Antonio. But unfortunately the Bailo hastened to act before he received the commands and assistance of the home government, and with all the forces he could master invaded Attika. He fell into an ambush and was taken prisoner. T. Mocenigo, who was appointed Bailo in his place, was instructed to treat with the Bastard, but he refused all terms and after a siege of seventeen months Vitturi pressed by starvation was constrained to surrender the Acropolis.

In the meantime Pietro Zeno, the lord of Andros, a very dexterous diplomatist, had proceeded on behalf of Venice to the court of Suleiman at Hadrianople to obtain his intervention with Antonio for the restitution of Athens, and also to arrange that the Republic should receive the district of Oropos and Lykonía opposite Negroponte. In spite of opposition on the part of Evrenos Bey, the dexterity of Zeno brought about a peace between the Porte, the Emperor Manuel and Venice; and the Sultan consented to the restitution of Athens and the Venetian tenure of Oropos and Lykonía.

The restitution of Athens, however, was not realised. The Bailo of Euboa continued the hostilities, and at the same time negotiations went on; but an arrangement was finally made that Antonio was to remain in possession of Athens, but as the vassal of Venice, in token of which relation he was to send every Christmas-day a pallium for St. Mark with 100 ducats.

In 1406 complaints were made that the pallium had not been sent and that Lykonía and Oropos had not been surrendered. A new treaty was made in August 1407 to the effect that the fortresses in Lykonía were to remain in Antonio's possession, while the land was to be handed over to Venice.

Euboians who had fiefs in Lykonía were to owe no duties to Antonio; Euboians who had fiefs in other parts of Attika were not to be liable to personal service.

After this peace the Venetians of Euboia had rest as far as their Attic neighbours were concerned for many years, and Athens recovered a portion of its prosperity under the enlightened Florentine sway of Antonio, who was a lover and patron of the fine arts, so that Nicolò Machiavelli who resided there or some time could write of it with enthusiasm as the fairest land in the world. We are involuntarily reminded, by contrast, of the depressing picture that Bishop Synesius of Kyrene drew of its desolate and dreary appearance at the beginning of the fifth century.

§ 58. *Turkish Hostilities.*—The land of Jacopo Giorgio III., Margrave of Bodonitza, was exposed to frequent Turkish inroads, and he obtained leave from Venice in 1408 to transfer his people to Karystos in Southern Euboia, which his brother Nicolò held in fief from the Republic. In 1410 Musa, the successor of Suleiman sent an army against Bodonitza; Jacopo was slain after a brave defence and the castle was dismantled. His son Nicolò was carried off to the Sultan's seraglio, and his brother Nicolò of Karystos, assuming the title of Margrave, crossed from Euboia where he resided and put the dismantled fortress into a tolerable state of defence, the Turks having in the meantime proceeded against the Catalan lord of Salona.

In the following year, 1411, a treaty was struck between Musa and Venice. The terms were that Venice was not to be required to pay tribute to the Porte for Lykonía and Ptelion, while a definite tribute was fixed for Albania, Lepanto and Patras. The boy, Nicolò Giorgio, was liberated; he was afterwards appointed châtelain of Ptelion 1433—41. In the meantime the other Nicolò Giorgio, his uncle, who was not obliged to give up the title of Margrave when his nephew reappeared, was in an unenviable situation at Bodonitza. In 1412 he sent the Bishop of Thermopylai to beg for reinforcements from Euboia, and to allow him to bring back the people who had left Bodonitza for the shelter of Karystos. Venice relieved his distressed circumstances by reducing the rent of Karystos from 350 to 300 ducats. Some years later it was reduced to 250. The baronies and fiefs of Euboia were becoming less valuable every year as the encroachments of the Turks in Europe increased.

Mohammed succeeded Musa in 1413,¹ and the first years of his reign were marked by hostilities to Venice. In 1414 a Turkish fleet plundered Euboia and then proceeded against Bodonitza, which was taken and laid in ruins. The Margrave was carried off to Hadrianople, and 1,800 inhabitants were enslaved. The intervention of Venice secured Nicolò's release in the following year. Again in 1415 Euboia, as well as the Kyklades, was again laid waste, but this time Attika suffered most, as Duke Antonio had neglected to pay his tribute, and the assistance rendered by Negroponte to her

¹ A decree was passed in 1413 forbidding the cultivation of the district of Lykonía, which was to be held purely as a military position.

neighbour did not help much. But the position was changed in 1416 by a great naval victory which the Venetian captain Pietro Loredano gained over the Turks at Kallipolis. This forced Mohammed to yield to the demands of Venice, namely to liberate 1,400 Euboians whom his fleet had carried off, to restore Bodonitza to the Margrave, to evacuate the parts of Athens which he still occupied. As for the restoration of Bodonitza, it was of little consequence to either Mohammed or Nicolò: the latter finding that the rebuilding would cost too much retired to Karystos where he enjoyed his estates and the title of Margrave.

The depredatory expeditions of 1415 inflicted severe blows on several districts of the island. Although only 1,400 persons were demanded from Mohammed, it was said that more than 1,500 souls were carried off from Lipsos, Lithada, and Jalitra alone—Lipsos and Lithada being entirely laid waste. After the peace these two places were strongly fortified, and a short time afterwards Turkish slaves were employed to build a rampart round Oreos. Many Euboians fled to Thessalonika in fear of the Turkish marauders.

The Turk was not the only enemy. A virulent plague, which broke out at the same time, decimated the inhabitants who escaped the sword or the chain of the infidel. Another natural calamity befell the island in 1418, an earthquake which overthrew castles. For some years after this, although the Euboians were in constant apprehension of the Turks and Venice made frequent preparations of defence, no pillaging descents of any gravity seem to have taken place until 1426, in the February of which year 700 islanders were borne away in Turkish vessels. The castles of Euboia were then put in a state of defence, and 200 mercenaries were hired. Styra¹ and la Kuppa seem to have been places on which special reliance was placed. In 1430 Venice lost Thessalonika which she had held for seven years (since 1423), and this seemed to increase the danger of Negroponte. Polimeno de Lisauria (whom we have already met as the bearer of a petition from the islanders to Venice), represented to the Senate how serious the danger really was. In consequence of his explanations, measures were taken to strengthen the walls and forts of Negroponte.

But after the year 1430, although now and then the islanders were seized with a sudden attack of Turkophobia and alarm prevailed for a while, the people on the whole had rest for more than thirty years. The cultivation of corn, which had sunk very low, revived, and we learn that in 1439 a certain Torrandi was commissioned by the Knights of St. John to buy up from ten to twenty thousand bushels of corn in Euboia. At about the same time another earthquake dealt a great misfortune by overthrowing the strong castle of Vallona.

It was only a short and partial revival of prosperity however that was secured to Euboia by immunity from Turkish inroads; and long before the island was again exposed to the hostility of the Sultan its condition began

¹ Styra was called Potiri. It was held at this time by Antonio Giustiniani.

to decline. The want of money, which caused continual applications to the Venetian treasury, is a sure sign of this. In 1452 the archbishop Protimo of Athens implored the Senate to allow the taxes of four years to be paid by the Euboians in ten years, on account of their impoverished condition.

Venice hardly regarded the capture of Constantinople in 1453 as a really critical point in the great contest of the Europeans against the Moslem. For in 1450 she already looked upon the city of the Roman Emperors as doomed, and ceased to concern herself with it. In 1454 a treaty was made between the Republic and Mohammed, but it was plain that there would soon be war to the knife for the Venetian possessions in the Aegean. Of these Eubœia was the most important, and the Sultan could not allow that island to remain under any lordship but his own. The struggle was postponed for some years. Mohammed had much to occupy him in Asia, and in Europe George Kastriota, the hero of the Albanians (Skander Beg), opposed the progress of the unbelievers and defended the independence of his countrymen with so much energy,—supported by the Pope, by the king of Naples, and by Venice—that the main strength of the Turks was directed against him. His death in 1468 left the hands of Mohammed free to deal with Negroponte and the other Venetian cities in the lands of Romania, that had not already submitted to his sway.

Lemnos was abandoned to the Turks in 1465, and the islanders were allowed to find a home in Eubœia. At the same time the Bailo made a truce with the Sultan, agreeing to pay tribute for Negroponte. Vettore Capello was sent to the Eastern seas in 1466, and he occupied the islands of Imbros, Thasos, and Samothrake. Jacopo Loredano succeeded him as commander of the fleet, and contented himself with remaining in the neighbourhood of Negroponte and Ptelion to protect those places. Nicolò Canale replaced him in 1468, and in the following year, like a presage of the coming storm, the southern parts of Eubœia were laid waste by a descent of the Turks.

Venice now began to prepare in earnest for a hard fight over her chief *ὀρμητήριον* in the East. Rhodes, Chios, Cyprus, Charles of Burgundy were appealed to for assistance, and Canale was bidden to save the island at any cost.

§ 59. *Siege and capture of Negroponte.*—The history of the siege of Negroponte is a study in itself and might well be made the subject of a separate essay. As there are several accounts of it which I have not been able to consult, it appears best to give the narration in the words of one of our sources, and to add notes of comparison with other accounts. For this purpose I have chosen the French relation published by M. P. Paris in his *Les MSS. françois de la bibliothèque du roi*, which is itself a translation from the Latin of Jacopo della Castellana. I subjoin notes indicating points of difference from or agreement with Sanudo (in his *Vite de Duchi di Venezia*), with the continuation of the Bologna Chronicle of the Minorite Bartolommeo della Pugliola, and with Navagero (*Storia Veneziana*).

‘On the 5th of June, 1470, the Turks started from Constantinople

against the armament of the Venetians, to wit 300 sail proceeding against Nygrepont, among which there were 100 large galleys as well as light galleys and bombships.¹ But the army of the Venetians was in the place called Tenando.² Likewise on the 8th day of the said month, the armament of the aforesaid Turk went to the island of Limbro³ and made a circuit of it and attacked the castles, and in fact took one of them, whereof a certain Messire Marchis Janny was ruler and governor, who immediately was cruelly tortured and ill treated along with three of his companions by the infidels.

‘Moreover on the 10th day of the same month the armament of the Turk proceeded to the island called Distilinium,⁴ whereof a certain Messire Antoine de Jacoppe was ruler and governor, and then he besieged a castle named Polycastre and abode there five days and five nights, and nevertheless he could not take it nor gain possession of it.

‘Moreover on the 15th day of the same month the armament of the Turk moved to the island of Schiro, and in effect burnt all the burg⁵ and set fire thereto; but all the time they could not take the castle.

‘Moreover on the 25th day of the same month the armament of the Turk moved and sailed to the columns⁶ of the aforesaid place, Nygrepont, and anchored at the Bridge of S. Marc; and the same day the Turk arrived with 300,000 men, not including the men of the armament who numbered 60,000. And finally the Turk caused a bridge⁷ to be made from the mainland of his territory to the island of Nygrepont, which bridge was 150 paces long and forty paces broad; over which passed the Turk, along with his son and with Bastian de Romania and all their army and company.⁸

¹ Sanudo gives 108 galleys, 60 *palandarie*, and the rest *fuste*. The *fusta* was a light galley, the *palandaria* or *palandra* a bomb-ship.

² Tenedos. The Venetian fleet consisted of thirty-five ships according to Sanudo, thirty-three according to Bologna Chronicle.

³ Imbros, called by Bologna Chronicle *Mambro*. The initial letter of Limbro is of course the article. Marchis Janny is called by Sanudo Marco Zontani.

⁴ That is Lemnos, called by Sanudo *Stalimne*. The corruption seems to have arisen from the Greek *ἔς τῆν Λήμνον*. The prefixed syllable *Di* may have come from Italian *di*. The dates of our sources here do not agree. Bologna Chronicle states that the Turks went to Schiro on the 10th, and does not mention the attempt on Lemnos: Sanudo states that they proceeded to Stalimne (*antiquitus* Polycastro) on the 8th, and fought there five days in vain. We might attempt to reconcile Sanudo and our French relation by supposing that the former gives the date of departure for a place, the latter the date of the arrival at a place; but this supposition does little good. For while according to Sanudo

and the Bologna Chronicle the Turks arrived in Negroponte on the 15th, according to the French narrative they only arrived at Skyros on that day, and did not reach Euboa till the 25th. We must accept the dates of the former authorities. Imbros was attacked on the 5th, Lemnos on the 8th, Skyros on the 10th, and Negroponte reached on the 15th.

⁵ Bologna Chronicle ‘fecero abbrucciare il Borgo.

⁶ Bologna Chronicle ‘andarono a Negroponte dal lato delle colonne e scorsero al Ponte di San Marco.’ The sailing line of Turkish vessels stretched from six to eight miles (Sanudo).

⁷ It was a bridge of *palandarie*. Navagero ‘E dopo di avere.....fatte strascinare per terra miglia tre quarantecinqe corpi di Palandarie, sopra le quali fu fatto un ponte’...*Strascinare per terra*, means that he had them dragged along the Boeotian coast on the mainland for three miles. (Compare the operation at the siege of Constantinople, 1453.)

⁸ Bastian is called Bassà by Sanudo and Bologna Chronicle. Only half the army passed over to the island: ‘con la metà del suo esercito’ (Bologna Chronicle).

Now this Bastian de Romania was a great captain of the army and company of the Grand Turk. And the pavilion-tent of the Grand Turk was red, of crimson silk; which he caused to be placed and set up under Sainte Clare; and there likewise he caused to be fixed and collocated a great bombard, which hurled and transmitted its bolt against the gate of Nygrepont called de Χρίστο. And he caused another bombard to be fixed and collocated under the forks or gibbet;¹ which likewise hurled its bolts against the same gate. And of a truth these bombards were so great and so huge that a man kneeling down and bent could find room in each. Moreover the aforesaid Captain, Bastian, set and pitched his tent or pavilion in the place of S. François, and it was white. And in the same place there were also three catapults,² which machines threw great stones in the air within the city and over its walls, to destroy totally and break in pieces the houses and inhabitants of that city. And the son of the Grand Turk put also his tent or pavilion in that place and in the calongrica;³ this pavilion was of crimson silk. And in the furnaces were fixed and collocated two huge bombards, which cast their bolts against the gate of the Temple, from the mainland outside the island; and there were fixed and collocated there other bombards which shot their bolts against the Judeaca⁴ and against the burg.

'Moreover on the 5th day of July,⁵ the Grand Turk commanded that the island should be scoured by 300 horse; and they scoured it and totally destroyed and wasted it, and as many men and women as they found in it they put to death, except little children.⁶

'Moreover on the 7th day of the same month, the Grand Turk caused the ditches of the said city to be filled with faggots and the dead bodies of men and beasts, and after that he set about beginning battle. And then straightway the men of Nygrepont engaged in battle with the Turks and infidels, and set fire to the gunpowder and the sulphur, so that they burned and consumed 16,000 men, if not more,⁷ along with forty galleys which had been drawn up on land by engines.

'Moreover on the 8th day of the same month,⁸ they fought a second battle, and then the military garrison of the city, in order to deceive the Turks and infidels, made a banner like that of the Turks and set it on the wall of the city. And then the infidels believed they had gained the city and subjected all unto themselves, and so without mandate and in disorder they

¹ *Gibbet ou forches.*

² *Mortez ou trabuchées.*

³ That is, the monastery (*καλογήριος*, a monk) Chronicle Bologna, 'E il suo bassà messe il suo paviglione a San Francesco, e il figliuolo alloggiò alle calonze di San Francesco.' Sanudo, 'il Bassà a san Francesco e il figliuolo del signore alla Callogrea.'

⁴ The Jews' quarter (called below Judée, Zoecca or Zuecca in Italian) was on the southern side of the Kastro, to the north of which lay and lies still the rest of the town. Bologna

Chronicle gives the number of these last mentioned bombards: 'E in terra firma avea dieci bombarde grosse che continuamente travano al Burchio e alla Zoecca.'

⁵ On the 25th of June according to Bologna Chronicle, on which day also the first battle took place (cf. Sanudo).

⁶ Bologna Chronicle, 'i giovani da quindici anni in giù.'

⁷ 14,000 according to Bologna Chronicle.

⁸ On June 30th according to Sanudo and Bologna Chronicle.

began to run, and all of them like beasts without forming in a body were routed, and killed to the number of 17,000 Turks and infidels.¹

‘Moreover on the 9th day of the same month² in the third battle 5,000 Turks and infidels were slain.

‘Moreover on the 10th day of the same month³ in the fourth battle 3,000 infidels or Turks were slain, and on the same day was discovered the treason of Messire Thomas Sayano⁴ by his wife, and then the bailiff of the city caused him and his followers and assistants to be decapitated.

‘Moreover on the 12th day, Thursday,⁵ the Grand Turk caused all his army and armament to collect on the side and quarter of the city where the walls were broken by the bombards, to wit against Judée and the burg. And then he commenced the assault on the city about two hours before day, and on the side of the island he caused ditches to be filled with barrels and dead men, and bodies of dead horses,⁶ and finally within two hours of the day they took the walls and about noon they took and held the city in their mastery, and put it to the sack.⁷ And presently, Christian men and women whom they found therein, from fifteen years up inclusively, they slew,⁸ and by various

¹ 16,000 only, Bologna Chronicle; but Sanudo gives only 16,000 as the total of killed in both the first and second battles together. Thirty Turkish galleys were sunk: Sanudo and Bologna Chronicle.

² On July 5th; Sanudo and Bologna Chronicle. As to the number slain Sanudo here agrees with the French relation, but Bologna Chronicle makes the number more than 15,000.

³ The fourth battle took place on 8 July (Sanudo and Bologna Chronicle). 4000 slain (Bologna Chronicle): 15,000 (Sanudo).

⁴ Tommaso Schiavo, ‘capitano della fanteria de’ Veneziani.’ The discovery of his treason took place on July 5 according to Sanudo, but Bologna Chronicle agrees with the French relation that it was found out on the day of the fourth battle. It was not ‘his wife’ that was instrumental in discovering it; it was an old woman—‘una femina vecchia’ (Sanudo), ‘una donna antica’ (Bologna Chronicle). The mistake probably lies with the French translator, who interpreted *feminam* to mean ‘wife,’ when it was intended for ‘woman.’ As to the fate of the traitor, Bologna Chronicle states, ‘il quel Tommaso fu tagliato a pezzi per le mani di Messire Aloisio Dolfino con tutte quelli che si trovarono nel detto trattato, che furono dodici uomini.’ Thus his accomplices were twelve. Tommaso was then ‘appiccato pe’ piedi a’ balconi del palazzo del Bailo.’

⁵ On the 11th the Turks attacked the broken wall, ‘dalla banda del Borgo della Zuecca, e con 10 bombarde tirò contro la terra, facendo empier le fosse’ (Sanudo). Bologna Chronicle fixes the time of the attack to 2 o’clock A.M. (‘a ore due

innanti di’)—the same time that the French account fixes for the attack on the 12th. The entry of the town on the 12th is fixed by Bologna Chronicle to 2 o’clock P.M., ‘e i Turchi entrarono dentro à di 12 à due ore di di,’ with which the statement of Sanudo sufficiently harmonises, that at 2 o’clock ‘i Turchi diedero loro grande battaglia e generale ed entrarono nella terra,’ &c. The French account has confused and run into one the events of the 11th and the 12th, as to which Bologna Chronicle and Sanudo are consonant.

⁶ This filling up of the ditches took place on the 11th: cf. Bologna Chronicle, ‘E fece empier le fosse di botti con gran quantità di corpi morti e di fassine per tal modo che superchiavano le mura rotte della città.’

⁷ Navagero mentions that before the final assault and success on July 12, the Sultan made known to his army his indignation that so many days had been spent in besieging one town: ‘fatta prima una gagliarda querela contro il suo esercito che tanti giorni era stato alla espugnazione d’una sola città ed essendogli dalle gente sue esclamando risposto ch’egli comandassi che taglierebbono in pezzi i corpi loro co’ quali farebbono un ponte per passare nella città,’ &c. During the siege Mohammed made proposals to the Bailo, offering very favourable terms, large rewards to himself, ‘e a que’ della città esenzione dal carago per anni 10’ (exemption from tribute for ten years).

⁸ The Bailo, with a few others, retreated into the citadel after a brave defence, but yielded when Mohammed promised that his head should be safe (‘di salvargli la testa’). Mohammed

most cruel tortures, incredible and inexaudible, they crucified and martyrised them, to constrain them to give up the Christian faith; and praise and gratitude is due to God for this, for there was no Christian person, even thus tortured, who for such pain would deny our Lord God Jesus Christ and the Catholic faith; but all died in the holy faith, for which we owe praise to God. And this done the Turk caused a muster to be held¹ of his Saracens and army in order that he might know how many people he had lost and what remnant of people remained to him. And in fact he found that about 40,000 Saracens were missing, who had died there. But of the Christians there were reckoned dead 30,000 men, both of those of the city [and] of all the island and of the fighting men.

'Of a truth an armament and company of Venetians was at the bridge Sainte Clare with forty-five galleys and twelve large ships; and the armament might have succoured the city, but the captain did not wish,² so that he did not give permission to four galleys of Cyprus and Candia, which he had taken by force and detained, with a great ship of Genoese which he had likewise taken.

'And when Nygrepont was taken, the following islands, castles, and towns surrendered; to wit, Limbro, Stalmino, Schiacto, Schopyno, Lafactileo, Landro, and Ficallo, which is on the mainland.³ And after this arrived other letters of Venetians confirming the things told above, and furthermore narrating that after the destruction, above recounted, a large Genoese ship, under the safe conduct of the Grand Turk, had sailed to Nygrepont, which

caused him to be cut in two, not thereby violating his promise, which was that his head, not his body, should be safe. This is related by Navagero, who thus describes the executions: 'A gli altri restati vivi fece proclamare esso signore sotto pena del palo che tutti gli fossero presentati. E secondo che gli venivano menati subito faceva loro tagliare la testa, di modo che da quel furioso impeto non campò testa d'alcuna sorte, eccetto pochissime le quali con estremo pericolo di chi le salvarono furono Salvate.' The most important of the slain were Paolo Erizzo the Bailo, Lionardo Calbo, Giovanni Bondiniaco. Bologna Chronicle is mistaken in making Erizzo the Bailo elect, and Calbo the Bailo in office.

¹ This took place on July 15th: Bologna Chronicle, and according to the same authority 35000 Turks were found dead in the city, so that the sum of the Turks slain in the fifth battle was 77,000 (? 83,000), and 6000 Christians were slain. These numbers agree with the statements of Sanudo.

² The do-nothing policy of the captain of the Venetian fleet, Nicolò da Canale, is censured by all the writers. The besieged lived in constant hope, says Navagero, 'che il generale colla sua armata molto grossa e potente, il quale era a Corinto, luogo propinquo, incontrasse l'armata

Turca, fatta vacua d'uomini e rovinato il Ponte mettendo i Turchi in Isola e assediandoli sopra quella costantissimi che non si volerano rendere. Ina il Generale, sebbene da tutti i capi della sua armata era consigliato e stimolato a fare questi effetti e vedeva i segni continui della città che gli dimandavano ajuto, mai non si volle muovere dicendo di volere aspettare d'ingrossare l'armata di molti navilj mandatí ad armare in Candia.' His behaviour seems quite inexplicable. Sanudo says that he was much blamed in Venice for not having attacked the bridge of palandarie. He did however come at the last moment when it was too late: 'E il generale venuto tardi per rovinare il ponte, vista la perdita della città, ritornò in Candia' (Navagero), and it is to this that Bologna Chronicle refers in the statement that the fleet of the Venetians was at the point of Santa Chiara (at Negroponte) with forty-five galleys and seven large ships to succour the city, but they could do nothing in consequence of the Turkish bombardments, and retired to protect Nauplion (Napoli di Romania). Canale was banished for life to Friuli, as a punishment for his blunders.

³ That is, Imbros, Lemnos, Chios, Skopelos, Petali (?), Andros, Ptalion.

as it was returning was assailed and manfully attacked by the fleet of the Venetians, and finally they captured it; and it was laden with pearls and precious stones and infinite merchandise. The ship was very large and contained, as they say, 2,000 boxes in which were great riches, and very cunning (*ingénieux*) men, expecting that the Turks and Saracens had taken the said jewels to the place of Nygrepont and sold them to the Genoese at a cheap rate—expecting that they would not be able to retain long Nygrepont and the islands aforesaid.

‘This account, written in Latin, was sent to Rome, and was since translated into French at Geneva.’

§ 60. *Conclusion.*—‘The sorry and dolorous news was heard,’ says the author of the *Lives of the Doges of Venice*, ‘in this country on the 30th of July; and it was displeasing to all and every one grieved thereat.’ Several attempts were made to recover the important island which Venice considered her right eye, but it was all in vain; Eubœia was destined to remain in the power of the Ottomans, until the new kingdom of Greece arose. The lion of St. Mark on the Kastro of Chalkis, on the tower of Santa Maria dei Cazzonelli which stands on the rock that severs the sound of Euripos, as well as many castles and some aqueducts, remain to attest the Venetian and Lombard domination. But the two hundred and seventy years of Italian occupation left no permanent marks on the character of the population,—except indeed the introduction of the Albanian element which was due to Venetian policy; whereas the three hundred and fifty years of Turkish rule has left a memorial of itself in Eubœia, though in almost no other part of Greece, in the form of Turkish families which still possess landed property. The Italian proprietors who escaped the Turkish scimitar fled to the west. Sanudo relates that many gentlemen put themselves to death through melancholy and grief for their loss and shame, and for the death of their relations and friends who were at Negroponte for purposes of merchandise.

JOHN B. BURY.