Anna Marangou

Naval Tradition

“The distance between Cyprus and the maritime cities of Egypt, Syria, Armenia, Turkey and Greece does not exceed one day of navigation . . .”

The excerpt comes from German pilgrim Ludolf Von Suchen in the middle of the 14th century. It underlines the importance of the island in the naval history of the Eastern Mediterranean, being at the cross roads of the sea routes between Western Europe and the Black Sea, between Armenia and the Syro-palestinian coast and Egypt. The wind and current pattern in this basin, along with the human achievements in the field of navigation brought maritime Cyprus and its harbours to the limelight of the Eastern Mediterranean.

Naval tradition in Cyprus is an indisputable fact. The lush forests, the island’s geographical position, its natural harbours, the intensity of the direction of the winds, even man’s innate need for discoveries and travels were all present in the island since the dawn of its history. The Late Bronze Age harbour facilities at Enkomi, main harbour for the copper export to the Middle East, and Kition on the southern side, manifest the wealth and the cosmopolitan character of the island during that period.

Our knowledge of ancient seafaring, ship construction and the existence of various harbours have been enriched over the past decades, thanks to underwater archaeology, and modern technology. The discovery of the shipwreck of the 4th century B.C., the Kerynia shipwreck, and its multiple reconstruction has added to our knowledge of ancient methods of shipbuilding. Objects such as anchors, reliefs on stones, depictions of ships on vases has increased our knowledge of ship construction. In addition a large number of terra-cotta models of ships found on the island depict reality in miniature. Most of these clay
models date to the Middle Bronze Age period and to the Roman times and they were mostly found in tombs as burial gifts to the dead. These models though reflect the legend of King Cinyras of Paphos who had promised to send to King Menelaos of Sparta 50 ships in aid of his expedition to Troy. But the king broke his promise and sent only one; the remaining 49 were made of clay and were cast in the sea.

The seafaring ability of the Cypriots in antiquity is proved in much literary evidence. It is believed that Cyprus offered Xerxes one hundred and fifty ships while among the notable generals of the Persian fleet were the Cypriot Gorgos, his son Hersios and Timoanax. The Persian king Pharnabazus sailed to Cyprus and there he ordered the kings to prepare a hundred triremes. (Diodorus Siculus, 14.39, 1–2). When the Persians fought Evagoras in Salamis, Diodurus Siculus informs us that the King of Cyprus had ninety triremes, of which twenty were Tyrian and seventy were Cyprian.

Pliny the elder talking about the development of navigation says: “The freight ship was invented by Hippus of Tyre, the cutter by the Cyrenians, the skiff by the Phoenicians, the yacht by the Rhodians, the yawl by the Cyprians”.

In the era of Alexander the Great, Cyprus continued to be an important naval power. From the description of the siege of Tyre we learn that the ships that were built in Cyprus were quinqueremes and as Strabo also mentions the ships were constructed with bolts and could be taken
apart. The people of Cyprus presented Alexander the Great with 120 ships and Cypriot engineers contributed to the conquest of Tyre, and despite the fact that the pentiremes of the Kings of Cyprus, Pythagoras, Androcles and Pascratos sank in the naval battle, the Cypriots sailed to the northern harbour and conquered part of Tyre. We also know that Alexander manned his vessels with Cypriots when he crossed the Ydaspis river in India.

Inscriptions found in Palaepaphos mention that “king Ptolemy honoured Pyrgotelis, the son of Zoitos, for he designed the thirtireme and the twentireme and also surveyed their construction”. (JHS 9, 1888 255, on 125).

The shipyards of the island were known throughout the Roman Empire. Author Ammianus Marcellinus (4th century A.D.) wrote:

“Cyprus, too, which is an island remote from the land, has many harbours. This Cyprus is so fertile and has such an abundance of goods that it can construct cargo ships, from the hulls to the tall sails and well equipped and seaworthy, without any help from others, based only on its internal wealth. (XIV 8.14)”

Ancient Cyprus had 19 harbours that are mentioned in ancient documents or are testified by ruins and excavations. These harbours are: Salamis, Arsinoe, Famagusta, Leucolla, Kition, Amathus, Kourion, Palaepaphos, cape Zephyrion, Arsinoe, Nea Paphos, Marion, Limenia, Soloi, Melabron, Lapithos, Kerynia, Makaria, Karpasia and Ourania. No doubt the main harbours of Cyprus, those that were on the East West trade routes, such as Salamis, Kition, Amathus and Nea Paphos had important arsenals, both for the local ships but also for those visiting the harbours. Unfortunately medieval and modern construction of ports damaged the old arsenals and only a few examples remain today. The loss of the architectural remains of the arsenals results in the absence of knowledge as to the nature of the arsenals, their infrastructure, their dockyards and the existence of specialised workshops, the kind of ships that were constructed and the methods used. Our knowledge of ancient arsenals derives mainly from literary sources. Two exceptions are noted here below, the arsenal of Salamis and that of Kition.
Isola di Cipro, par Ferrandus Bertelli, Rome, 1562 (© Fondation culturelle de la Banque de Chypre).

Carte nautique du Levant. Amsterdam, 1670 (© collection Sylvia Ioannou).
The Arsenal in the harbour of Salamis

In classical times we know through author Isocrates that King Evagoras of Salamis personally saw to the construction of the harbour of Salamis.

“. . . After he had taken over the government of the city, which had been reduced to a state of barbarism and because it was ruled by Phoenicians, was neither hospitable to Greeks nor acquainted with the arts, nor possessed of a trading port or harbour, Evagoras remedied all these defects and besides acquired much additional territory, surrounded it with walls and built triremes. . . .” (Isocrates, Evagoras, ASCS, A, 66.9)

The harbour of Salamis was an enclosed harbour, having two different basins. The older part lay in the south side of the city and served as an emporium. The new military harbour (built by King Evagoras) consisted of a long strip of sea along the eastern seafront of the city; in the lee of the reef, which now lies submerged, was the arsenal, which was used for the maintenance of local boats, dockyards and storage facilities.

The harbour of Salamis and its arsenal were prosperous until the 3rd century B.C. when Ptolemy moved the capital from Salamis to Paphos. One of the reasons for moving was the proximity of the lush forests of Paphos that could supply the arsenal of the harbour of Paphos with the necessary wood for the construction of the ships. Consecutive earthquakes and the silting of the harbour of Salamis made way for a new city built a few miles east of Salamis, Constantia. The harbour of Constantia suffered under the Arab raids and in 691 under the orders of Emperor Justinian II, the people of the island, and in particular the citizens of Salamis, together with their Archbishop were forced to move to the other side of Hellespont, to the city of Artaki, that lay opposite Constantinople. The citizens of Salamis were chosen as they were famous shipbuilders and they could build boats and effectively protect Constantinople from the Arab raids.

The Arsenal found in Kition Bamboula

During recent years a very important archaeological discovery was made by the French Expedition and archaeologist Marguerite Yon in the coastal city of Kition. Historians and archaeologists know of the existence of a harbour during the archaic and the classical periods from its exports of oil, copper and salt to the Middle East. Excavations brought to light the military harbour of the classical period (5th century B.C.), the
Anna Marangou

*kleistos limin*, as Strabo mentions. The archaeological excavations at Bamboula revealed the dockyards for the warships of the royal navy. We know that the warships of the period were the triremes, light and swift vessels, which however had a drawback; the longer they stayed in the sea, the more their timber swelled from the water and the heavier they became. It was therefore necessary to pull them out of the water in order to dry before they were used again. To the north of the temple a series of parallel stone levels were found, which the archaeologists identified as ramps. They all had a small slope and wooden scaffolding was attached to them to facilitate the transportation of the ships. The ramps were roofed and were in use until the 4th century B.C.

**Byzantine and Medieval Cyprus**

*Insula Portuosa*

During the Byzantine period, Cyprus retains her role as a naval island. From Arab sources we know that a Cypriot fleet of 22 vessels is pillaged in Latakia. (Kemal al-Din, RHC Or III, 578). In 1097 Emperor Alexios Comnenos sends general Butomites to Cyprus to acquire ships and money.

Climatic conditions and the configuration of the coastlines in the Mediterranean, as well as the political alignments led crusaders to use Cyprus as a port of call. Often though the island was used as a potential base for launching attacks against Islam.

We know from documents that Cyprus contributed with ships to the various naval leagues that were formed under papal auspices after 1330 to combat piracy in the Aegean and the Eastern Mediterranean. Cyprus contributed 6 galleys. King Hugh IV of Cyprus sent 12 galleys and 12 pamphiliae against the Turks in 1336 and 21 galleys a year later. In 1343 Cyprus provided four galleys out of a total of 20.

It is obvious from the documents that Cyprus built ships during the medieval period. The indications we have as to the existence of arsenals are scarce and mainly derive from the chroniclers, or the pilgrims who stopped to refuel on the island on their way to the Holy Land.

It is widely accepted that the Ottomans, being themselves a nomadic folk and strangers to the sea (as their Muslim faith declares), used the knowledge and the experience of various seafaring people of the Eastern Mediterranean and managed in that way to build one of the mightiest
fleets in the medieval world. From the 14th century onwards, the Ottomans created arsenals around Constantinople, reusing the old Byzantine ones. In this manner arsenals existed in the Proponitis, on the shores of the Black Sea, in the Aegean and of course in Cyprus. Venetian Marino Sanuto in his *Diarii* describes the life of the shipbuilders that were brought in from the Greek island of Chios; and other pilgrims such as Marsigli, Olivier and Tournefort describe conditions in the Ottoman arsenals. Arsenals are likely to have existed in Cyprus in Lapithos, in Kyrenia, in Famagusta, in Larnaka, in Limassol and in Paphos.

**The Royal Arsenals of Famagusta during the Lusignan (1191–1374), the Genoese (1374–1464) and the Venetian period (1489–1571)**

During the 14th and 15th centuries Famagusta harbour enjoyed both a spectacular commercial prosperity and also an important military presence. Travellers to Cyprus testify to the enormous wealth the city enjoyed particularly after the fall of Acre to the Muslims in 1291. Famagusta then took over the role of the entrepôt of east-west trade and a large number of Syrian merchants established themselves in the city. Europeans too took a liking to the city and Genoese, Venetian and Pisans enjoyed the privileges offered to them by the Lusignan kings.

However no remains of Arsenals of the medieval period are to be found today in Cyprus. As all were part of fortifications that surrounded the port (Famagusta, Paphos, Kyrenia), they were destroyed by the constructions of the Ottoman occupation as well as later on during the British rule.

One of the earliest mentions of the Arsenal of Famagusta is that in the *Chronique d’Amadi* (1306–1310), where the anonymous author records that Amaury Lord of Tyre, after seizing power from his brother King Henry the II, set about to improve the fortifications of the city of Famagusta by enlarging the castle and fortifying the area from the Sea Gate to the Tower of the Arsenal. Travellers narrate that the Arsenal lay close to the fish market at the northern most edge of the fortified town.

The medieval port of Famagusta was located at the eastern part of the city, sheltered from the southeasterly winds by a line of islets and
reefs extending parallel to the shore. It was a double port, consisting of two basins, an outer one and an inner anchorage. The inner port was built with a wooden quay on the shore, extending in front of the city gate and the castle protecting the port. In the southern section of the port was the arsenal, the access to which was through a gate in the maritime walls of the town. In this arsenal small commercial vessels with reduced tonnage were constructed.

Detailed and rare information concerning the Royal Arsenal of Famagusta is found within a document published by Professor Jean Richard. The publication entitled “Le Dossier d’une nonciature en Chypre (1327–1330) – Les Comptes de l’évêque Géraud de Paphos et les Constructions Navales en Chypre” has to do with the accounts that the above Bishop was ordered to bring back to Pope Jean XXII. In 1327 the Pope designated two apostolic bishops to travel to Cyprus to look into the accounts of Géraud de Veyrines, who was at the head of the Latin bishopric of Paphos between the years 1323–1327. Bishop Géraud also undertook to order in Cyprus the building of ships for the Armenians of Cilicia, who suffered under the attacks of the Mameluks. The details of the orders of the building of the ships are found within the documents of these accounts. As Jean Richard notes:

“The accounts concerning the building of the two ships are detailed. Starting with the initial expenses (10 August 1325) to the completion of the ships (in May 1326) all details are available to us: number of nails and pieces of wood, number of working days etc. What we know less about is the kind of boats they built and their tonnage. The account gives the ship the name taffioresiae. We know that this kind of ship is used exclusively for the transportation of horses because of the high double doors; but in Cyprus, the word apparently had a different meaning. As Pegolotti points out in his Glossary placed at the beginning of Pratica della mercatura, the word tafere in Cipri, means little light boat, with a sail and a dozen of oars.”

The document brings to light details concerning the construction of the above boats at the Royal Arsenal of Famagusta. Cyprus possessed the ideal kind of timber for the construction of boats that was very

Anna Marangou

Famagouste, par Angelicus Maria Myller, Nuremberg, 1735
(© Fondation culturelle de la Banque de Chypre).

Famagouste, par Offert Dapper, Amsterdam 1703
(© Fondation culturelle de la Banque de Chypre).
precious in the Orient. Egypt had no such wood, Syria was also poor and the slopes of Troodos in Cyprus furnished the arsenal of Famagusta with the planks of large dimensions, necessary for the construction of the ships. All other material necessary was also found on the island and there was no need for imports: iron and nails, oakum, ropes, resin and sailing cloth were offered by Cypriot merchants to the “masters” that worked for the account of the apostolic bishop. The names of the technicians “the masters” are also of interest to historians. Amongst them the names of the carpenters were usually Cypriot (Georgios from Nicosia, carpenter Leoni, Basilis, son of Corvarii and Theodoro Romaniti and Georgio Romaniti, and Coste and Micheli Romathi). Next to them other names evoking the kingdom of Jerusalem, the principality of Antioch, or the county of Tripolis: Master Jacques de Saiette (Sidon), Pierre de Sur (Tyre), Simon Muchi from Tripolis, Erienne de Crac, Jean de Tripoli, Philippe de Cayphas. Jean Richard rightfully wonders in his text whether all these people were “Franks” that came over to Cyprus from the Holy Land, or Syrians. But other names refer to “Franks” that established themselves in the island from the West such as: boat-builder Jean le Petit, Bertrand from Famagusta, master Jean Oiselet (Oseleti) or Dominique, son of Antony. Master Boat Builder Guillaume of Barcelona, or caulker Guillaume d’Albenga, or even Ubertino de Plaisance who provided the biscuits. All betray through their names their late arrival on the island, just like the Pisans who were the sellers of cypress planks and also the captains to bring the boats to Armenia. This mélange of Westerners, Greeks from Cyprus, Syrians and Franks of the Holy Land is very characteristic of the population of Famagusta of the 14th century.

The accounts describe the daily work of these people who worked in the arsenal of Famagusta together with their sons and their “boys”. It is strange to note that carpenters came from Nicosia and worked in Famagusta (apparently Famagusta did not have specialised technicians); they were paid an advance of one month’s salary; the payment is actually quiet irregular; it usually corresponds to one week’s work, at other times people are paid by the day, and at other times for a month. The master carpenter receives a salary that is rarely inferior to 1 besant per day, sometimes even reaching 1.5 besants per day. His aids were paid less: Master Simon of Nicosia receives 45 besants for a month’s work, one of
his sons receives 30 besants for the same amount of time, whereas another “boy” is paid only 15. His slave receives 3 besants and 36 deniers. The presence of slaves in the ship construction is not surprising: foreign help was abundant in Cyprus at the time, but it is interesting to note that slaves acquired higher positions. A slave named Hassan is mentioned and is qualified as a King’s slave and was the guardian of the Royal Arsenal of Famagusta. He spends a lot of his time in the building of the tafforées, the small light ships destined for Armenia, and his work receives the same wages as the ones received by the Master Carpenter (1 besant per day). He also has two slaves as aids. From the accounts we conclude that the Royal Arsenal of Famagusta was adequately equipped with both the necessary technicians and the necessary material to provide all repairs to ships that came in; but we also know that the arsenal was capable of constructing the ships. However, the main occupation was that of repairing and not of construction.

In 1372, the king of Cyprus ordered to “... fabricar et fortificar le muraglie del arsina de Famagusta ...” along with the fortification of the walls of the town against the expected attack by the Genoese. The entrance to the harbour was protected by a tower built on the northern reef at the end of the natural breakwater and by a maritime castle, built on land. A chain closed the entrance.

During the Genoese occupation of the city (1374–1464) and from the account of the Massaria we know that a quarter developed around the Arsenal and the tower. In 1443 the threat of the Mameluk fleet made the Genoese reinforce the Arsenal (scharium) and close the gateway of the arsenal for security reasons. Famagusta follows orders received from Genoa and the Officium Gazarie for shipping, control of the equipment, and everything regarding naval control.

Leontios Machairas, a chronicler during the Lusignan and the Genoese reign often refers to the arsenal. In Greek he refers once to arsinallin (from the Arabic dar ac-cina ah, meaning house of art, workshop) and mostly to tzardachana (from the Venetian zardachana) or transinallin. In the Chronicle Makhairas narrates the kings’ efforts (both Peter I (1359–1369) and King Peter II (1369–1382)) to collect money for a crusade against
the Turks but also their quarrels and battles with the Genoese. Both Kings order the building of galleys for their needs, but there is no specific mention as to the character of the arsenal, the people working at it and its exact location.

“King Peter fitted out forty-six ships, small and great belonging to Cyprus” para. 118

“And at once (the King) ordered them to fit out ten galleys . . .” para. 194

“The King sent word to the admiral that he should tell the people to make ready and that he should fit out as many ships as he could. And he immediately fitted out twenty-eight galleys . . .” para. 200

We know that the tower was round and that it occupied the whole area between the tower and the Camposanto Bastion. No traces of this large and important arsenal remain today.

“The king removed the men and the material of war which were in the arsenal and which the king had put there . . .” para. 366

“And if any one found in the possession of weapons refused to hand them over to the royal arsenal, they could be beheaded . . .” para. 442

“When the king saw the goodwill of the lords, he sent word to his brother in Cyprus to fit out all the ships that were in the arsenal at Famagusta and as many others as were to be found on the island . . .” para. 160

“All those willing to go to the Sultan’s country to pillage, can go, and may come back again to Cyprus to rest and then go there again, and they shall be given whatever they may need from the arsenal at Famagusta . . .” para. 213

“And they tried to come towards Famagusta, and came to the round tower of the arsenal . . .” para. 362

Through the marriage of the last Lusignan king of Cyprus to Caterina Cornaro, the island passed into the hands of Venice. Throughout the period we know from the archives of Venice that the government of


Cyprus contributed to the needs of the arsenal of Venice mainly by shipping goods. On the 30th January 1520 we read:

“All the treasuries of the Venetian Republic and especially the Treasury of Cyprus had to contribute 10 ducats monthly to the Arsenal of Venice. Cyprus never obeyed and the Council of Ten decided to ask the Government of Cyprus to send the corresponding amount in cotton with the ships that would sail in March so as to be able to fabricate the fustagno, for the needs of the Arsenal.”

In other documents of the decisions of the Council of ten, we are informed that Cyprus sent the Venetian Arsenal 1000 ducats and cotton⁶, whereas in 1527 Cyprus sent wheat and cotton⁷. In 1528 we read that the Public Treasury of Cyprus sent 190 ducats annually to the Arsenal of Venice⁸.

After the Venetians took over the Administration of Cyprus in 1489, architects and mechanics brought in from Venice undertook a program of restoration and reinforcement of the existing Lusignan fortifications. Ascanio Savorgnano, a

---

7. Council of Ten, 12 October 1527.
specialist in military architecture, after visiting the fortifications, made a detailed account of the works to be undertaken so that the city would be ready for an eventual Ottoman attack. Before these alterations were finished, the Turks besieged the city.

The Siege of Famagusta 1571

We are very fortunate to have narratives of the siege of Famagusta by the Turks in 1571 as well as detailed maps that indicate the topography of the city and the harbour during the Siege. Venetian officials recount the way the city fell after a siege that lasted a whole year. The great tower of the arsenal was of course mostly hit by the cannons that came both from the sea and the land.

“Five cannons from the fort on the reef bombarded the Tower of the Arsenal. The Curtain of the Arsenal was aimed at from two forts with twelve pieces.”

During the siege we know that Captain Francis Bogone was in charge of the tower and cavalier of the arsenal; Captain Peter Conte the curtain of the arsenal, the cavalier of the Volti and the tower of Campo Santo.

As Fra Angelo Calepio notes:

“In the citadel was M. Andrea Bragadino, who was carefully guarding the side towards the sea, arranging and digging out new flanks to defend all parts of the Arsenal. The enemy crept up slowly and pushed their trenches to the crest of the counterscarp. They had completed their forts and on May 19th commenced a cannonade from ten of them, containing in all seventy-four pieces of large calibre, among them being four basilisks of enormous size. The works attacked lay between the Limiso Gate and the Arsenal, and five distinct cannonades were made, one against the great tower of the Arsenal, upon which they fired with the five guns in the fort on the rock. A second against the curtain of the Arsenal, from a fort mounting eleven guns.”

“Oh June 21 they fired the mine under the great tower of the Arsenal, under the directions of Janpulad Bey. It shattered the wall, which was of great thickness, breached it and brought down more than half of it,

splitting also a part of the parapet, which had been built to protude and bear the brunt of an assault.”

Another 2 eyewitnesses, Count Nestor Martinengo and Pietro Contarini recall:

“. . . On July 9 they made the third assault on the ravelin, on the great tower of St. Nappa and that of the Andruzzi, on the curtain and great tower of the Arsenal. It lasted over six hours and at all four points the Turks were driven back.”

“. . . Opposite the great tower of the Arsenal they constructed a cavalier, all strengthened, without cables and as high as the city.”

“. . . The Turks had finished their mines, and fired them on July 29. The mine at the Arsenal shattered the rest of the great tower, blowing up nearly a whole company of our soldiers. Only the two flanks remained whole.”

Pietro Valderio in his narrative of the siege of Famagusta recalls that bread for the whole army was made in the proximity of the warehouse that was situated in the Arsenal.

The city fell and the Arsenal was completely destroyed. As George Jeffery notes in his book of the Historic Monuments of Cyprus:

“At the seaward extremity of the south wall is a large round tower, built in a more medieval fashion as a circular structure, and not as a solid earthwork or casemate. Out of it leads a large vaulted gallery running along the face of the sea wall on the east side of the city. This gallery measures about 100 by 20 feet: it serves partly as a communication between the great round tower and the ancient gateway of the Arsenal, and for a gun-chamber commanding the approach to the Arsenal. The round tower known as the “Arsenal Bastion” and being exposed to the fire of the batteries of the seashore, was completely destroyed. Within the south wall, between the Arsenal and the Camposanto bastions, was situated the arsenal of the city. The sea gateway of this most important Venetian institution still survives, as also a few imperfect vestiges of the ancient buildings and the outline of the slips on which the galleys were

10. Calepio, in Excerpta Cypria, pg. 150.
hailed for repair. The mass of ruins now covering the ground look as if they had been blown up intentionally with powder. The gateway for drawing the galleys through and up on the slips was probably walled up by the Turks in the course of their repairs to the fortifications after the capture of the city and it is presumable that the buildings of the Arsenal were destroyed for the purpose of supplying stone.” 13

Modern Cyprus

The Karnagio in Limassol

Karnagio is the name for the shipyard of Limassol today. It lies on the western outskirts of Limassol, the main commercial and tourist port of the island today and has been in existence since the 1960s. Previously the shipyard was situated opposite the Municipal Garden, and people still have strong and happy memories of that time. It was moved in 1963, after a decision of the Municipal Authorities, to the area of the old Slaughterhouse. Nine boat builders of note have their yards in the Karnagio and are largely still working with wood, as it is still the material of choice for local buyers. Wooden boats are still fabricated in the traditional way, shaping the timber keel and beams from raw logs. Actually the people still use the word tarsanas when they refer to the shipyard where boats are built, and they use the word karnagio to indicate the area where ships are brought to shore for repairs.

The traditional wooden boats that are fabricated in the Limassol Karnagio are the maounes (for the transport of passengers) the trechantiria (fishing boats), the karavoskara (trading boats), the “liberties” and the pasares. The preferred wood is often the sycamore for the small vessels and pine for the bigger ones.

The art of ship building in Cyprus has direct influences from the Greek islands, and in particular from Symi and Kalymnos. The art of shipbuilding is passed on from father to son. Charalambos Augustis, known to the Limassolians as Master Chambis, was a known karavomarangos – master boat builder – who was introduced to the art of shipbuilding through a relative from the Greek island of Symi. He built

in the Karnagio of Limassol more than 400 boats – mainly wooden ones – and his art and technique continue today through his sons the Augoustis Brothers. It is the Augoustis brothers that built the third replica of the ancient ship of the 4th century B.C. that was found in the Kerynia waters.

It is interesting to note Cypriot nautical words, that evidently derive from the French or the Italian language: *tropida* (is the keel), *fallagia* (the wooden trunks that carry the boats on the shore), *boutelia* and *derekia* (the long thin pieces of wood).

*Maître Chambis Augustis en 1930 en compagnie de son oncle originaire de l'île grecque de Symi.*