WALTER PUCHNER

A SHORT OUTLINE OF THEATRE HISTORY OF THE BALKAN PENINSULA (From Renaissance to Mid-War years)

T he dynamism of theatre history in South-East Europe shows certain common elements, permitting a typological comparison of developments, especially after the gradual loss of the Venetian possessions in the Mediterranean and the conquest of the Serenissima during the Napoleonic wars, and chiefly among the countries under the two-headed eagle of the Habsburg Monarchy and the half-moon of the Ottoman Empire. This despite the religious and dogmatic differences between Orthodox Christians, Catholics, Protestants, Anabaptists, Calvinists, Lutherans, etc., who were opposed to theatrical development and despite the cultural influences from Italy, Austria-Hungary and the urban centres of the Greek Enlightenment. This possibility of comparison concerns chiefly the period of pursuit of the ethnic and cultural independence during the 19th century (with some time differentiations) which was expressed in the countries under Turkish domination through revolutions, in the countries of the Habsburg Empire through cultural conflicts for the prevalence of the regional language, as an official means of expression and communication¹. For the Slovenians, Croats, Serbs (in Novi Sad and Belgrade), Hungarians, Romanians, Bulgarians, Greeks and Turks (after the Young Turks' revolution and the foundation of a secular state), the establishment of national theatres acquired a historical symbolism, which marked off cultural autonomy - in the countries under Turkish domination, territorial autonomy as well - from the dominant cultures of the two multi-ethnic empires (Puchner 1993)². In the light of this autonomy and independence procedure away from the Ottoman and Austrian cultures, the efforts for ethnic awakening of the Balkan peoples during the 19th century (Valjaveć 1955, 1961, Maass 1951-61, Kann 1964, Pollo 1985, Kitromilides 1983, Stavrianos 1958, Grothusen 1974) can be examined as parallel and analogous, in spite of their differences in timing, particular manifestations, in the use

¹In this paper the meaning of South-East Europe is used as a linguistic, political, historical and cultural term, as has been established in most centres of research of the area in question (i.g. in the Biographisches Lexikon zur Geschichte Südosteuropas, 4 vols. München 1972-81 and in the "Bibliography of South-East Europe", published by Südost-Institut in the same city). However, Albania and FYROM have been left out of this comparison, because these countries configurate their national literature only in the 20th century. Cyprus is not included either, because it shows an autonomous theatrical evolution after 1880 (on the beginnings of Cyprian theatre under the English rule see Γ. Κατσούρης, «Το παλιό θέατρο, ο συγγραφέας, η παράσταση, το κοινό», Κυπριακή Λογοτεχνία. Οι ρίζες, Λευκωσία 1980, σσ. 71-83, Π. Χ. Μουστερής, Χρονολογική ιστορία του κυπριακού θεάτρου. Από των αρχαιοτάτων χρόνων μέχρι και του 1986, Λεμεσσός 1988, σσ. 25 εξ. The German-speaking parts

of Habsburg Empire have also been left out. On the other hand, investigating the popular theatre and popular spectacles and rituals, East and South-East Austria has to be included (see B. Πούγγεο, Λαϊκό θέατοο στην Ελλάδα και στα Βαλκάνια. Συγκριτική μελέτη, Αθήνα 1989). ²Specifically: the Slovenians in 1867/92 (the legalisation of the Slovenian "Dramatic Society" in 19.4.1867, the festive opening of the new theatre in Ljubljana in 29.9.1892 and at the same time the 478th performance of the Dramatic Society); the Croats in 1861, the Serbs (Novi Sad) in 1861, the independent kingdom of Serbia (Belgrade) in 1868, the Hungarians (beginning of Nemzetszinhaz in Peste) in 1837, the Romanians in 1852, the Bulgarians in 1904, the Greeks in 1901 (there were performances, however, with the character and function of national theatre before 1821 in Jasy, Bucharest and Odessa), the Turks in 1916 (Darülbedayi Osmanî, in 1914 as a musical academy, became the national theatre only in 1927).

of cultural or military methods, etc. (Stadtmüller 1976, Jelavich/Jelavich 1963, Stavrianos 1957, Djordjević 1970, Plaschka 1985, etc). This procedure of establishing independent nations and the demand for autonomy of the national cultures compose the firm framework within which it is possible to compare the theatre history of the Balkan peoples for a definite, quite long, time period (Puchner 1993: 25-42, Puchner 1994: 8-18). Neither before nor after this "regeneration" phase can such a phenomenon be observed: differences prevail. In the stage of national formation, the whole intellectual life, the sciences and arts, were orientated towards the strengthening and stabilisation of national consciousness, also of the elaboration and establishment of a national ideology, capable of handling present, past and future (for Greece, Veloudis 1970, Veloudis 1982, Πούχνερ 1996, Puchner 1999). Nor was the theatre absent from this national "mission": historical tragedy together with national and patriotic drama, idolised as well as taught the glorious national past. This past might concern antiquity, or the Middle Ages, or recent eras. The aim was to transfer the legendary roots of the nation to the remotest possible past in order to explain the present as a continuity and reflection of bygone grandeur, capable of illuminating the future. Social and political comedy functioned as a law court for the problems of the present, in which the ideals of patriotism, sacrifice, justice, liberty and self-determination, constituting the national ideology in the awakening phase, deviated sadly from living reality. The domestic political situation of Serbia, Romania, Bulgaria and Greece was almost the same during the 19th century: foreign royal houses reigned in these miniature states; the political situation was fluid, even chaotic; the Great Powers intervened openly in domestic affairs: the upper classes were marked by ideological confusion and moral corruption; nepotism, arrogance of government officials, bribery, the short-sighted self-centredness of the petit bourgeois; fortune and office-hunting, the sham patriotism of leaderswho were aping Western manners and attire, etc. Playwrights like the Serb Bronislav Nušić, the Romanian Ion Luca Caragiale, the Bulgarian Ivan Vasov and the Greek Michael Chourmouzis have a relative subject-matter: they criticise and ridicule the same phenomena and describe the same social conditions (Mladenov 1965). These procedures of autonomy of the Balkan peoples, providing the framework of the comparable developments of the theatre, stretch chronologically from the last decades of 18th century (Hungary) up to the Young Turks' revolution of 1908, the Balkan Wars and the dissolution of Austria-Hungary at the end of the First World War. In ideology and style, the national drama of the Balkan peoples moves into different structures: from Enlightenment and Romanticism, through Realism to Naturalism and Symbolism, reaching Modernism of the turn of the century and inter-war years. However, several stylistic fusions, unknown in Central and Western Europe, can be detected. This means that the stylistic terminology demands some special attention and discussion, as similar phenomena appear in several national literatures in different eras (on Romanticism, see Iorga 1924, Busulenga-Dumitrescu 1978, Castellan 1985, Matl 1965).

The ideological fermentations of the Balkan 'regeneration' era, are essentially influenced by the humanistic ideology of the Enlightenment (Valjaveć 1953-70, Turczynski 1959, Veloudis 1983, Thierfelder 1943, etc), also by Herder's 'Sprachnation' (Sundhaussen 1973, $\Delta\eta\mu\alpha\alpha\phi\varsigma$ 1983, etc.), the identification of language and nation, and the right to self-determination as understood by political Romanticism and German Idealism, the instructive ideas of Joseph II reforms (Bernath 1972, Turczynski 1985) and of the French Revolution (Kitromilides 1990). In the countries of the two-headed eagle the national and nationalistic trends were manifested in a cultural struggle against the domination of the German language, the institution of preventive censorship, the German-speaking theatres (Dietrich 1967, on Budapest, Mályusz-Czászár 1968). All these factors still affected, if indirectly, the national stages for quite a long time by imitating the repertory of the Viennese Burgtheater (Πούχνεφ 1993: 43 et seq., Puchner 1994: 23 et seq.); the juxtapositions take place mainly at the language level, because the national literature written in the national language and the national theatre as the place of cultivation and teaching of this literature and its national subjects are the visible landmarks of the establishing of national autonomy. In the countries of the Ottoman Empire these efforts to achieve cultural autonomy are simply preliminary phases of military national revolutions aimed at territorial independence. In order to throw off the foreign rule, the subjugated peoples did not restrict their targets to the language, but aimed from the beginning at political self-determination. Anyway, apart from the linguistic, the religious differences played an important part in this matter³. The juxtaposition of local culture of the Danube Principalities and Bulgaria with the dominant Greek culture and language, is secondary. The Greek language played a similar part under Turkish rule in large areas of the eastern and southern Balkan peninsula, as did the German language 1973: 236-288, Daskalakis 1969, Papacostea-Danielopolu 1969, Maslev 1968).

National drama and national theatre, with their high prestige, played an important part in the procedures of stabilisation of the national languages. Most national languages of South-East Europe were still in a fluid state during this "regeneration" stage, between spoken and written language, between church codification and dialect-idiom differentiation as well as literary traditions deriving from the Renaissance and baroque eras, the purifying tendencies of the Enlightenment and the linguistic orientation of political Romanticism in its resort to the language of traditional songs in its search for models for a desirable national language (i.e. on Greece see Hering 1987).

Creating and developing of national-language theatre was easier in those countries which already had a theatrical tradition, or where the itinerant German companies or the local German-speaking stages in the dominions of the Habsburg Monarchy provided an organisation model. Another tradition was the school religious theatre of Catholics and Protestants, decisive for amateur stages in their first steps towards the constitution of a national stage. These amateurs shared the following difficulties: the formation of a repertory in the local language, the finding of trained actors, especially for the women's parts, the securing of a suitable place to perform, the production of costumes and scenery, financing by patrons or local authorities and in general the organisation of the performance and the co-ordination of the actors. The traditionally hostile attitude of the Orthodox Church towards spectacles and theatre could be overcome only on special occasions (as on Chios, in the 17th century, Puchner 1999a). Only in areas where the Venetian occupation or Italian cultural standards had established theatrical performances as a self-evident factor in education or a festive display of power, such as tournament (giostra) (Puchner 1998, Πούχνεο 1998), was the Church not an obstacle. Furthermore, the enlightening function of the theatre as a school of humanistic values for the nation, with directly patriotic motivation and a generally humanistic objective, succeeded in overriding the hostility of the Church towards the theatre. This hostility had existed since the earliest centuries of Christianity. The conservative circles of the 19th century shared it on a

³On the role of religion (especially Orthodoxy) in the configuration of national consciousness, see selectively: G. Zach, Orthodoxie und rumänisches Volksbewußtsein vom 16-19. Jahrhundert, Wiesbaden 1977; E. Turczynski, Konfession und Nation. Zur Frühgeschichte der serbischen und rumänischen Nationsbildung, Düsseldorf 1974; H.F. Schmidt, "Konfession und Nationalität in Südost-Europa", Österreichische Osthefte 5 (1963) 2, p. 92-108; by the same author "Funktion und Organisation der orthodoxen Kirchen in Südost-Europa", Südosteuropa -Jahrbuch 3 (1959), p. 34-46. large scale (Puchner 1983, 1990). The Muslim prohibition of icons (and images of living things in general) and any kind of Christians' gathering in the countries under Turkish rule contributed from the beginning to the thwarting of the development of a regular theatrical life. The only exception to this is the shadow-puppet theatre, which can be traced in all the major Balkan countries up to the 20th century, first as an entertainment of the local pashas, later as a popular show in the traditional coffee shops (Πούχνε 1985, Puchner 1997).

Popular shows and popular theatre

There is a rather different possibility of comparison at the typology level in the case of popular theatre and popular shows, which will be mentioned only incidentally here (Πούχνεο 1985 - bibliography: 255-351, 1994: 151-200, Wildhaber 1968, Schmidt 1965). Besides the common rural-mythological and magic-religious basis of the representative rituals and practices, the more sophisticated forms of popular theatre reveal a stronger dependence on the nature of the faith. The religious popular spectacle was chiefly fostered in Catholic regions and less in Orthodox ones (Πούγνερ 1989: 13-36). However, the common grounding of the church calendar, like the belief in the presence of 'souls' on the earth during the 'Twelve Days' (Puchner 1977: 110 et seq.), the idea of 'modus reversus' during carnival (Moser 1986), the Christian celebrations of Christmas and Easter, the spring celebrations of May Day and Lazarus rituals (Puchner 1978, 1979), the occasional rituals to induce rain to fall (dodola, perperouna) (Puchner 1982, 1984) springing from church supplicatory processions, all these common bases, being simple, first-degree forms of the theatrical, show a certain possibility of comparison (Πούχνεο 1989: 27 et seq., 61 et seq.), especially in the Orthodox regions, where differentiating and destructive procedures such as the Reformation, Counter-Reformation and Enlightenment did not take place and such customary phenomena some times descend directly from the first thousand years (i.g. the Roman rosalia, Puchner 1987, Πούχνεο 1994a: 11-95).

More complex forms of popular spectacles are even closer to religion. In the masquerades and the disguises, though, there are comparable figures throughout the Balkans: the plant-shaped disguise in green – the Slovenian 'Želeni Juraj' (the green Saint George) (Huziak 1957, Kuret 1967), Saint George on horseback in New Souli, Serres (Auατερινίδης 1969), - the green-dressed perperouna, sprinkled with water, from Hungary to Crete (Puchner 1996; 89-124). There are the animal-shaped disguises of the two-legged and four-legged 'beasts', included in the category of 'horse-like masks' (Kretzenbacher 1965), numbering among them 'camels' (from South Styria to Attica, Puchner 1977; 203, 206 et seq., 218, 241, 259 et seq., 263 et seq.,), 'bears' dancing to the sound of the gipsy bear-trainer's tabor (Puchner 1977a), the 'goat' (from Austria to Asia Minor and in Romania always with the Old Man) (Cantemir 1973; 316 et seq., $\Sigma\alpha\muom\lambda$ ' $\delta\eta$ ς 1980; 237), and many others. There are also the human-shaped disguises (Hovyce 1989; 94 et seq.), in which the bridegroom and the bride, the 'negro' (a demonic black bugbear), the 'old people', the doctor, the priest, etc (Puchner 1977, Kuret 1979, Bombaci 1963) perform improvised parodies of weddings, funerals, abductions of the bride, murders and resurrections of the victim, law courts, medical tests, etc. (Puchner 1977, Hovyce 1989; 120-128), in more or less elaborate versions.

There are many elementary forms of the puppet theatre, so common in the Balkan countries, using statuettes or effigies: the Viennese Kasperl (Rommel 1952) and its Hungarian counterpart Gaspar, Kis Bohóc, Jancsi Paprika (Belitska-Scholtz 1975, Balassa/Ortutay 1982: 699-702), the Croatian pair Šante i Pante (Bonifačić-Rožin 1962) and the Slovenian, Serbian and Bosnian-Herzegovinian

counterparts (Bonifačić-Rožin 1979), the Romanian kinds presenting "Herod" (also known in Hungary, Ukraine and to the Germans of Eastern Dispersion, Schmidt 1962: 330 et seq., Schram 1964, Schuller 1959, Vargyas 1948, Földes 1958, Gragger 1925), "Bethlehem" ("vicleim", Gîtzā 1964, Nadejda 1960), with the primitive pair "Vasilache și Marioara" (Oprișan 1978, Rādulescu 1978) played "à la planchette" also in Bulgaria (Kacarova 1968, 1976, 1979). In "jocul papu silor" there are mixed forms, with living actors (Popescu-Judetz 1967, Teodorescu 1874, 1885, Vulpescu 1926, 1941, Saineanu 1900) embodying disguises belonging to winter carols and figures from the shadow-puppet theatre (Πούχνερ 1985: 57 et seq.). There are the forms of "kukla oyunu" (Jacob 1919, Spies 1959) like the primitive "bebek oyunu" in Asia Minor (And 1965) and the Greek "Fassulis" (Puchner 1978a, Βελλιώτη 1979/80), springing possibly from the "fagiolino" or "fasulein" of Bologna. All these elementary forms of the puppet theatre have as a deeper meaning and function the mission to move fertility forward or to bring the desired rain. In order to do this, the figures are buried and lamented over (Puchner 1986-88, Πούχνεο 1989: 61-75). Such cases are the Romanian "caloianul" or "skalojan" (the name comes from the Czar Kalovannis or Skylovannis, the besieger of Thessaloniki in 1207, Fischer 1908, Burada 1880: 28, Candrea 1900, Beza 1926: 32-36, Ivānescu 1967, Πούχνερ 1994a: 139-142). There is the Bulgarian "german" (Zelenčuk/Popović 1976, Kostov 1913, Marinov 1914, Vakarelski 1971: 613 et seq., Kaufman 1968, Genčev 1973, Benovska 1981) played also in Greece and Besarabia (Zečević 1969, 1973, 1976, Ginčev 1982). In Greece there is "Zafiris" from Epirus (Σάρρος 1900, Kακούρη 1965, Puchner 1977: 199 et seq.), "Lidinos" on Aegina (Ηρειώτης 1921-25, Κακούρη 1952: 216 et seq., Μέγας 1956: 236 et seq., Puchner 1977: 165 et seq.), the "Fouskodendri" (sap-rising) in the Peloponnese (Κακούφη 1952: 225 et seq.), "Krantonellos" on Mykonos (Μακουμίχαλος 1941, Καχούοη 1946: 166, Puchner 1977: 166 et seq.), "kannavos" (hemp) in Asia Minor (Μισαηλίδης 1960, Καχούρη 1951, Μέγας 1956: 204 et seq., Σαμουηλίδης 1980: 236, Πούχνερ 1983). In the processions for Lazarus in Bulgaria a doll called "buenec" appears (Jordanova 1966, Puchner 1978). In Greece Lazarus' doll is dandled like a new-born baby (Puchner 1977: 167) like the doll "sulul" in Romania (Rādulescu 1969) and the doll "kuchkutera" in Asia Minor (Παπαδόπουλος 1938-40: 262). In Bulgaria (Angelova 1960) and on the islands of the Aegean Sea (Méyox 1956: 125, Arnott 1956, Puchner 1991: 53 et seq., 58) they prepare festive breads like mummies (or a swaddled baby) for Lazarus and distribute them to the people. A Judas effigy, made of clothes and straw, is burned or shot, while the dynamite in its belly explodes (Puchner 1977: 161-164, 1977b, 1982a, 1991: 105-108).

In the field of religious popular theatre, the Orthodox Balkans cannot compete with the multiform spectacles of the Catholic and Protestant regions (cf. the rich bibliography in $\Pi o_{\gamma veg}$ 1989: 172-179). In the Orthodox regions only the following popular-religious rituals can be considered as theatrical activities: the symbolic representation of Christ on Good Friday by the Sarakatsani (Xar $\zeta \eta \mu \chi \alpha \lambda \eta$ 1957: $\varrho \xi \delta'$); the representation of Lazarus' Rising on Cyprus and wider Eastern Hellenism (Ohnefalsch-Richter 1913: 86 et seq., Puchner 1977: 200 et seq., 317 et seq.,); the ritual "portae clausae" ("Arate pylas", in Western Europe "Tollite portas" before the Reformation) on the night of the Resurrection or when the Good Friday epitaph returns (Puchner 1979a, 1988: 71-126); the representative Service of the "Pedilavium" in Saint John's Monastery on Patmos (Puchner 1977: 319-331, $\Pi \lambda \omega \rho (\eta \varsigma 1999)$: 187 et seq.), etc. In the areas which were influenced by the Western Church, because of the theschools and the Orders, the baroque representative processions, the religious theatre of the schools and the public religious spectacles, there was a totally different basis for later developments (in the Orthodox regions such activities can be detected only on the islands of the Aegean Sea).

This anti-theatrical prejudice in the Orthodox regions is counterbalanced in the areas of Venetian influence and of Italian culture in general by the tradition of the Renaissance and baroque theatre. Some survivals of it lingered in public spectacles: the chivalrous performance of "moreška" on the island of Korčula near Dubrovnik (Ivančan 1967), the "nailing of the ring" (correr all' anello) in the hinterland of Venice (Kuret 1963), the Dalmatian coast and its hinterland (Kretzenbacher 1963, 1966, 1968, Nikolić 1964, Petrović 1962), the several kinds of tournament (giostra) in the Ionian Islands until the middle of the 19th century (Puchner 1979b, 1980, 1994: 103-150, 1998) but also in the Venetian-occupied Crete and Cyprus (Luciani 1994, Vincent 1994). It exists even today as a theatrical show on Zante (Πούχνερ 1994b), where they stage an adaptation of the second part of *Erotokritos*, the tournament (Holton 1991: 205-238, 1997: 253-291, Μαθιοπούλου-Τοgναρ(rou 1995, Puchner 1998). They also stage abridged popular adaptations of Georgios Chortatsis' *Erophili* (c. 1600) (Holton 1991: 144-148) performed in several places in western and central Greece during the carnival. These shows differ in length. They use costumes, props and somewhat symbolic acting of a regular theatrical performance (Πούχνερ 1989: 196-206, Πολυμέρου-Καμηλάχη 1998).

These are popular spectacles of literary origin. In remote areas they go through a new ritualising procedure and dwindle into a primitive carnival ritual, representing the killing and resurrection of a central person⁴. We meet sophisticated rituals having Death-Resurrection as their subject in many parts of the Balkans. As to this, I will refer only to the ritual of "Kuker" or "Kalogeros" or "Kiopek-Bey", of Romanian-Bulgarian-Greek-Turkish origin (Puchner 1982b). This ritual, thanks to the English archaeologist Richard Dawkins' description (concerning the village of Aghios Georgios in Eastern Thrace) (Dawkins 1906), has had a remarkable bibliographical career in studies of classical philology and the science of religion as an alleged survival of a Dionysiac cult which identifies the primary stages of ancient theatre before Thespis. It can well be used as a typical example of a wrong scientific theory in the 20th century (Puchner 1983a, 1988: 53-69). We must place the fire-walkers of Thrace called "Anastenaria" or "Nestinari" (in Northern Thrace - today Bulgaria, after 1919 in Eastern Macedonia) in a similar context (Puchner 1982b). There are the acrobatic and ecstatic dances of the Romanians "calusarii" (Kligman 1981), used to cure diseases caused by "rosaliile", the Whitsun fairies (Puchner 1987, Πούχνεο 1994: 11-95), also the Serbian ritual of Whitsun, of "padalice", combining prophesies, visions, oracles, magic cures and popular medicine (Antonijević 1990: 147-187).

The only really elaborate form of popular theatre in the mainland regions of the Turkishoccupied Balkans seems to be the shadow-puppet theatre (Πούχνεφ 1985, 1988: 253-288, Puchner 1998). It can be identified along the Danube from the 17th century (Nehring 1983: 101, Antonijević 1984: 390). A revel of the local courts, it developed into a popular spectacle of all the major cities, staged by non-Muslims (gipsies, Jews, Armenians and Greeks). In the late 18th century, the Swiss military officer Sulzer describes such a performance, in the Turkish-Greek-Vlach language, as he phrased it (Sulzer 1781: 402 et seq.). The language of these performances seems to change according to the audience. There is evidence of phallus-bearing Karagöz (Jacob 1925, Gerçek 1942, Menzel 1941, Ritter 1924-53, Siyavusgil 1955, Süßheim 1909, And 1975, 1977, 1986)⁵ as an urban entertainment in Sarajevo until the eve of the Second World War. This spectacle gradually

⁴On the theoretical theatrological aspects of the matter of this refunctioning procedure in rituals, see B. Πούχνερ, Θεωρία του λαϊκού θεάτρου. Κριτικές παρατηρήσεις στο γενετικό κώδικα της θεατρικής συμπεριφοράς του ανθφώπου, Αθήνα 1985 (Λαογραφία, παφάφτημα 9), p. 64 et seq. ⁵On a comparison with the Greek shadow-puppet theatre see St. Damianakos, "Karagöz turc et Karaghiozis grec, lectures comparatives", St. Damianakos (ed.). Théâtre d'ombres. Tradition et Modernité, Paris 1986, p. 119-158; A. Muortaxíkou, Karagöz. Το Θέαταο Σκιών στην Ελλάδα και στην Τουφχία, Αθήνα 1982; W. Puchner, Das neugriechische Schattentheater Karagiozis, München 1975, p. 39 et seq., 53 et seq., 76 et seq.; K. Muortaxíkôuv, Ot μεταμοφάσεις του Καραγχιάζη, Αθήνα 1998. vanished there, as in other provinces of the Ottoman Empire – Algeria (Maltzan 1863: 58-61, Piese 1882: 38, Bernard 1882: 38, Bachetarzi 1968: 424), Tunisia (Maquoi 1984: 125-31, Maltzan 1870: 225, Lux 1882: 94-104, Fagault 1887: 128 et seq., Radiot 1892: 286 et seq., Quedenfeldt 1890, Spies 1928), Libya (Hoenerbach 1959), Egypt (Kahle 1909), Syria (Littmann 1901, 1919), etc. The changing of social conditions caused its disappearance, as was the case even in Constantinople itself, where its basic mental function was lost after the Young Turks' revolution and the changing of the multi-ethnic population in the Turkish mahala (Puchner 1985: 43 et seq.). Only in Greece, during the years 1900-1930, did this spectacle flourish unexpectedly (Puchner 1975: 116 et seq.) and was at times more widespread and important than all the other kinds of theatre (Πούχνεφ 1988: 309-318). There were some special reasons for this. The shadow-puppet theatre (called "Karagiosis") assimilated the legends about the leaders of the revolution of 1821. It absorbed traditional stories (like "Alexander the Great and the accursed serpent") in the so-called Epirus tradition (Πούχνεφ 1985: 43 et seq.). The puppeteer Mimaros from Patra around 1890 made some essential changes (Χατζητανταζής 1984): together with others, he created a series of new figures, reflecting the varied social and legendary-historical context (Petek-Salom 1986).

A special feature of this kind of show, that is, its total dependence on the reactions of the public, makes it a distinctive example for the theory of theatre (Puchner 1975: 185 et seq.). Its gradual disappearance has to do with a change in its traditional public which decided the style of the show: children, "intellectual" bourgeois, tourists restrict and alter reactions which guide the improvisation of the puppeteer (Puchner 1986). There are also some general procedures leading to the changing of popular culture into folklore. There is the crisis of oral speech; cinema and television come into the picture, newspaper "rags" of doubtful quality circulate (for bibliography see Πούχνερ 1976-78, 1979-81, Myrsiades 1983, on orality, Myrsiades 1985), there are innovations in the repertory and pedagogical corrections of the self-centred and nihilistic protagonist (Πούχνερ 1994c, Χατζάχης 1998), etc. In Turkey there are still some puppeteers; they play out of printed booklets, however.

History of the theatre

Within the subject framework of this first approach to the theatre of South-East Europe, let us begin with the Greek developments, examining them, of course, together with the general procedures in the Balkan region. We can gain a clear picture of how theatrical developments differ, just by looking at the chronological table of the foundation of the national theatres: 1867/1892 by the Slovenians, 1861 by the Croats, 1861 by the Serbs in Novi Sad, 1868 in the independent kingdom of Serbia, 1837 by the Hungarians (at the beginning of Nemzetiszinhaz), 1852 by the Romanians, 1904 by the Bulgarians, 1901 by the Greeks (though there were performances functioning as national theatre already before 1821, as was mentioned above, in Jasy, Bucharest and Odessa), 1916 by the Turks (at the inauguration of "Darülbedayi Osmanî" a music academy since 1914), in 1927 in reality (see note 2). Combining these data with the dates of foundation of the first European national theatres, that is, the Comédie Française 1680 (Kindermann 1961: 150 et seq.) and the Burgtheater 1776 (Kindermann 1962: 13 et seq., 83 et seq., Zechmeister 1971), if we compare the phenomenon in the whole Europe we can gain information about the special dynamism in the theatrical developments of the Balkans. In the countries of the two-headed eagle, the Hungarians and the Southern Slav peoples are the leading factors, while in the countries under Ottoman rule, Greeks of the Diaspora. It also emerges that the small states which won their independence made a longer and more difficult effort to establish their national theatres than the peoples under the Habsburgs, who had the beneficial model of the Viennese Burgtheater and the local German-speaking theatres (although they might have been a handicap for the establishment and growth of theatres performing in the national languages).

This was the situation around 1800, first with the Hungarians and the Greeks. The background of this national theatrical activity permits comparisons on a limited scale. The beginning of theatrical activity in Crete and the Ionian Islands is still an open question⁶. Towards the end of the 16th century playwrights like Georgios Chortatsis appear (Bancroft-Marcus 1978, 1980). belonging to the world literature, who must have carried on an already existing theatrical tradition (AleE(ov 1979). From the repertory played up to 1660 (even in Candia during its siege by the Turks) eight texts have survived: tragedies, comedies, pastorals and religious plays, together with 18 intermezzi (Holton 1991). They were retrieved after the conquest of Crete in 1669 from Ionian manuscripts and Venetian printed editions (Πούχνεο 1991: 19-26). The few sources for theatrical activity (Παναγιωτάχης 1998) indicate amateur actors and seem to connect the performances with the carnival and the activities of the literary academies. The tragedies have concrete Italian models⁷. The comedies come from commedia erudita, although they follow their own particular Cretan tradition (Πούχνερ 1991:179 et seq., 1999: 91-113). The pastoral comedy Panoria by Chortatsis (there are also a Cretan and an Ionian translation of Pastor Fido by Giambattista Guarini) treats the Italian pastoral mode with a delicate irony (Πούχνεο 1991: 349-361). On the islands of the Ionian Sea theatrical activity seems to have begun as early as the 16th century (Παναγιωτάχης 1998: 91-118). From the 17th century (1647), the religious drama Evyena (Eugena) has survived, written by Theodoros Montselese (Vitti/Spadaro 1995). There is also the prologue of an unknown play written about 1650 (Eugyγελάτος 1970 et seq.). In 1683, there is evidence of a performance of Zeno on Zante (Euαyγελάτος 1968, Πούχνεο 1988: 215-297). After the conquest of Crete the Cretan repertory appears on the Ionian Islands (Πούχνεο 1991: 363 et seq., 428 et seq.). From the 18th century there are the tragedies *Iphigenia* and *Thyestes* by Petros Katsaitis (following Lodovico Dolce's models) (Κριαράς 1950, Ευαγγελάτος 1995), The Comedy of Mountebanks by Savoyas Rousmelis (1745) (Πρωτοπαπά-Μπουμπουλίδου 1970), and Hassis by Demetrios Gouselis (1795) (Συνοδιvóc 1997). In 1733, the loggia in Corfu was converted into the San Giacomo Theatre, where, during the 18th century almost 100 performances of Italian opera were given (Μαυρομούσταxoc 1995). At the same time, the first translations of Metastasio's and Goldoni's plays were available on the Ionian Islands. On Crete all theatrical activity stopped after the Turkish conquest. It continued on the Aegean islands. The first religious performances were connected with the Jesuit Order and took place in 1612 in Constantinople, spreading during the 17th

⁶On the various theories see N. Μ. Παναγιωτάχης, "Ιταλικές Ακαδημίες και Θέατφο. Οι Stravaganti του Χάνδακα", Θέατφο 27-28 (1966), p. 39-53; by the same author, "Ο Ιωάννης Κασσιμάτης και το Κφητικό θέατφο", Αφιάδνη 1 (1982), p. 86-120 (both papers in the vol. by the same author Ο ποιητής του "Εφωτοκρίτου" και άλλα βενετοχφητικά μελετήματα, Ηφάκλειον 1988, p. 11-50 and 324-340). Again by the same author see "Le prime rappresentazioni teatrali nella Grecia Moderna: Antonio Molino a Corfû e a Creta", *Θησαυρίσματα* 22 (1992), p. 345-360, as well as "Νέες ειδήσεις για το Κρητικό θέατρο", in his Κρητικό Θέατρο. Μελέτες, Αθήνα 1998, p. 141-158).

¹Georgios Chortatsis' Erophili is after Orbecche by Giraldi Cinthio, Ioannis Andreas Troilos' King Rodolinos follows Il re Torrismondo by Torquato Tasso, while Zinon has the Latin Jesuit tragedy Zeno by Joseph Simons as its model. century to Chios and the Cyclades. On Chios, where even the Orthodox priests wrote plays for school performances, they began sometime around 1640, on the Cyclades from 1628. This was an uninterrupted tradition carried on until the mid-18th century. Ten plays have survived, with subjects from the Old and New Testament and from the legendries (Puchner 1999a).

This Classicistic Greek drama, created in among the Renaissance and baroque, Mannerism and Counter-Reformation, can be compared to the beginnings of Croatian theatre on the Dalmatian coast and Ragusa (Dubrovnik) (Πούχνερ 1991: 467-502, 1994: 15-39) as both regions were under Italian influence (Batušić 1978: 1-25, Kumbatovič 1959, Πούχνερ 1991: 467 note 857 more bibliography). Still there are essential differences: the comedies and the pastorals of Marin Držić (Držić 1958, 1969, Pantić 1958, Gavella 1970, Čale 1979, Novak 1984, etc.), Mavro Vetranić (Bogišić 1968, Kolendić 1909, Švelec 1959/60), Hanibal Lucić (Švelec 1973, Kombol 1961: 123-130) and Nikola Nalješković (Bogišić 1971), had appeared already on Lesina island (Hvar) and continued all during the Counter-Reformation with the baroque mythological plays of Ivan Gundulić (Setschkareff 1952, Stipčević 1983, Hadrovics 1962) and Junija Palmotić (Potthoff 1973, Rešetar 1893, Hadrovics 1938, Panzer 1969, Pavić 1983/84). The earthquake of 1667 interrupted this theatrical activity, which was restored tentatively only during the 18th century (Batušić 1978: 149 et seq.). The predominance of tragedy is absent from Croatia of the Renaissance and baroque periods. In the pastorals of Držić and Nalješković the demystification of literary conventions is more crude and exuberant (Batušić 1984, Gladić 1973, Švelec 1968) than in Chortatsis' plays. The thematic sources are the same, that is, Tasso's and Ariosto's long epics8. On the other hand, in the Mediterranean Orthodox region under Venetian rule, no traditions of medieval religious theatre or sacre rappresentazioni seem to exist, as they do in Croatia (Perillo 1975). We see, however, the impact of Jesuit theatre as strong on Palmotic of Ragusa as on the islands of Ionian and Aegean seas (Puchner 1999a). The Commedia dell' arte stock characters appear occasionally in 18th century drama (Švelec 1975, Bojović 1980). The production of performances was the same: groups of young amateurs played on squares or in the Town Hall (the palace of the ruler), in the loggia, etc. They were unmasked, only men-actors, using scenery at the beginning, like Serlio's stock scenery of the mid-16th century (Pantić 1952, Rešetar 1922, Čale 1968). In the Cretan intermezzi and the baroque mythological plays we have to suppose that they used special effects, for which they must have needed a stage-designer or architect (Pantić 1958a: 69 et seq.). The role of music became more and more substantial during the 17th century (Demović 1981), resulting in opera performances during the 18th century. A local tradition was gradually formed: Držić's impact on later playwrights is as strong (Cronia 1961) as that of Chortatsis (Πούχνεο 1995: 178-196, 1997: 251-284). Gundulić's Dubravka is as popular as Chortatsis' Panoria. While in the Greek history of the theatre between the 17th and 18th century there is a geographical gap (the fall of Crete), in Ragusa the theatrical tradition continues to the mid-18th century. At this point it was eclipsed by the theatrical developments in the Croatian hinterland (Batušić 1978: 153 et seq., 169 et seq.).

*On Gundulić's epic Osman there is a long bibliography. See selectively: A. Jensen, Gundulić und sein Osman, Göteborg 1900; O. Makojef, "Beiträge zu den Quellen des Gundulićschen "Osman", Archiv für Slavische Philologie 26 (1904), p. 71 et seq.; A. Cronia "L'influenza della 'Gerusalemme Liberata' di Tasso sull' 'Osman' di Gondola", L' Europa Orientale 2 (1925); H. Rothe, "Untersuchungen zur Gattung des 'Osman' von Ivan Gundulić", Ost und West. Frankfurter Abhandlungen zur Slavistik, Wiesbaden 1966, p. 123-146; A. Haler, Gundulićev "Osman" v estetkog gledišta, Beograd 1929; M. Deanović, "Les influences italiennes sur l'ancienne littérature yougoslave du littoral adriatique", Revue de littérature comparée 1934, p. 1-23. In Crete there are immediate influences of Tasso's epic on the intermezzi.

The course of theatrical history in these regions was the following: the tradition of Jesuit school religious theatre in several cities of Croatia; the same tradition in Slovenian Ljubljana (Kumbatovič 1961, 1966, Kindermann 1967: 609 et seq.), where they produced Latin historical plays and martyr tragedies (Staska 1935) on the new baroque stage with wings; in Hungary (Staud 1962/63, 1965/67) even before Turkish rule, since the 15th century they had been performing mystery plays in Latin (Klaniczay 1964, Kindermann 1959: 388 et seq.) as well as humanistic dramas in the Hungarian language⁹, and from mid-16th century only in Upper and West Hungary. These developments correspond to religious drama in the Greek-speaking areas of the Aegean Sea, cultivated by the Catholic Orders (especially the Jesuits), during the 17th and the first half of the 18th century. There are no connections with the German-speaking touring companies, characteristic for the Slovenian, Croatian and Hungarian areas (Staud 1967: 21f et seq., Pukánsky-Kádár 1972, Radics 1912, Duwan 1966, Brever 1938, Batušić 1964). This chapter, recently discovered and still the object of research in the history of modern Greek theatre, includes the following religious plays: David (Παπαδόπουλος 1979), some plays about the Passion of Christ, the Presentation of Virgin Mary, the Seven Maccabees Children, the Three Children in the Furnace, the Man Born Blind, a draft of a play about Saint Isidore (Πούχνεο 1999: 147-220), all from Chios. There is also a Christmas play about Herod's death (Πούχνερ 1998a) and a martyr tragedy about Saint Demetrius from the Cyclades (Παναγιωτάχης/Πούχνερ 1999). A series of performances can be substantiated from 1580 at the Greek College of Rome, on Chios and the Cyclades, and even Constantinople itself, where, in 1623 there was produced a play about Saint John Chrysostom in which the leading part was played by the little son of De Césy, the French Ambassador. The ambassadors of the great powers were in the audience (Πούχνεο 1995: 197-240). Even the Orthodox Patriarch Cyril Lucaris wanted to attend this show which his personal enemy had set up, helped by the Jesuits, but his diplomatic manœuvre failed and his presence was not accepted. This theatrical activity which was connected with the Jesuit colleges - and declined only in the first part of 18th century - usually took place at carnival or in the processions of Corpus Christi (Puchner 1999a). The last leaf of the manuscript of Saint Demetrius' Tragoedia informs us that the performance was given on 29 December 1723 on Naxos. The manuscript contains also a list of the actors, all coming from the Western European noble families of the island. On Chios also the Orthodox colleges were engaged in such a theatrical activity. It is remarkable that this play-writing consciously continues the Cretan tradition (Μανούσακας 1989).

This development was followed by a new break, as the chronological succession appears in the Danubian principalities, during the "epoca fanariotilor", in the courts and the Greek "academies" of Bucharest and Jasy (Puchner 1975a). These developments appeared first with translations of plays by Molière, Goldoni and Metastasio meant to be edifying and beneficial texts. Later plays by Voltaire and Alfieri were translated because of their political and revolutionary content, within the ideological framework of Enlightenment ($T\alpha\mu\pi\alpha'\alpha\eta$ 1988: 11-32, 1993, $\Sigma\pi\alpha'\beta\eta_5$ 1986, $\Delta\eta\mu\alpha_0\dot{\alpha}_5$ 1983, $\Pio'\chi_V\epsilon_0$ 1992: 181-221, 1994: 241-264). In the Greek-speaking areas it was not Joseph II's reforms or Herder's "Sprachnation" that defined theatrical developments after 1800, but the ideas of the French Revolution. The beginnings

⁸In selection: G. & K. J. Hegedüs, A magyar dráma utja, Budapest 1964; T. Kardos, A magyar színjaték kezdetei, Budapest 1960; T. Kardos/T. Dömötör, Régi magyar dramaei emlékek, Budapest 1960; M. Horanyi, Teatro italiano del settecento in Ungheria, Budapest 1967; J. Fekete, Anfänge des ungarischen Schauspiels, Berlin 1973; L. Bernath, Protestáns iskoladrámák, Budapest 1963, etc. of theatre history in the early part of 19th century are the same for Romania and Greece (Σ L $\delta\epsilon\rho\eta\varsigma$ 1970, Camariano 1943, Knös 1962: 655 et seq., Zω($\delta\eta\varsigma$ 1968), with a common factor in the person of Konstantinos Kyriakos Aristias (1800-1880). Other Greeks also played an important part in the establishment of national theatres in the Balkans. Jovan Sterija Popović (his father was Greek) contributed substantially with his plays to the first Serb-Croatian repertory, some of which (like *Skenderbey*) definitely belong to world literature (Πούχνεο 1994: 40-102, Schmaus 1969). Zagreb was the scene of Demetrios Demetriou's activities (Demeter); Demetriou was one of the leaders of the Illyricist movement and worked for the establishment of the Croatian national theatre. These Balkan-wide interconnections are typical of the time period 1750-1850 (cf. personalities like Nikolaos Piccolos and Grigorios Stavridis/Prličev, whose work involves at least two Balkan languages.

The Phanariot translations intented to be educational reading, were accompanied by satirical plays in dialogue, coming from the entourage of the Patriarchate¹⁰ or from the Phanariots of Constantinople themselves ($\Sigma \pi \alpha \theta \eta \zeta$ 1995): the first are against religious movements and personalities, the second against other Phanariots and the moral corruption within their classes (Papacostea-Danielopolu 1977, Chisacof 1998). Later they turned against Korais' "middle road" (Πούχνερ 2001: 23-92) and the foreign rule of the Bavarians (Λιγνάδης 1986, Δελβερούδη 1997). The comedy of character in Molière's style and the comedy of morals in the spirit of Goldoni's last plays acquire a political and revolutionary dimension after 1800 (Ταμπάχη 1993: 127-148), especially after the foundation of "Philiki Etairia" (Association of Friends) in Odessa in 1814, where until 1821 they kept an important Greek amateur stage (Ταμπάχη 1993: 39-50). They performed on it the adaptation of Philoctetes by Nikolaos Piccolos (Σπάθης 1986: 173-198). Playwriting and theatrical manifestations of the Enlightenment ideology, comparable to those mentioned above, are encountered in Slovenia. There they performed the comedy Zupanova Mička (The Daughter of the Mayor) 178911, and the translations played in the "Slovensko Drustvo" (1848-50)12; in Croatia Molière and Goldoni (even Kotzebue and Iffland) were performed during the last decades of the 18th century (in adaptations by Tito Brezovački, 1757-1805) (Nikolić 1955: 13 et seq., Wojat 1962) together with the Serbian translation of Goldoni's I mercatanti by E. Janković in 1787 (Herrity 1980) and the Hungarian translations of Lazló Kelemen and Ferencz Kazinczky; the Romanian, Bulgarian and Turkish translation of drama began later.

Traditions of drama translation and reception mechanisms in the Balkan theatre

We can now identify common reception procedures of certain European playwrights from the beginning of the 19^{th} century, in all the Balkan countries. These procedures prove the existence of broad impact mechanisms and go beyond the range of examining only one national literature

¹⁰ The stable, 1692 (É. Legrand, Bibliothèque grecque vulgaire, vol. 2, Paris 1881), the Comedy of real incidents, (about 1750) against Rebaptists (Ε. Σχουβαφάς, "Στηλιτευτικά κείμενα του ΙΗ' αιώνος", Byzantinischneugriechische Jahrbücher 20, 1970, p. 181-194), the unpublished Works and dids of the Humbug Hermit Afxentios or Repentant Afxentianos, and others.

¹¹It is an adaptation of J. Richter's comedy *Die Feldmühle*.

This performance is considered the beginning of the Slovenian theatre (Kindermann 1962: 656; P.V. Radics, "Aelteste Geschichte des Laibacher Theaters", *Blätter aus Krain* 1863, p. 70 et seq., 1865, p. 66 et seq.).

¹² Eight Slovenian plays were performed totally (J. Sive, Opera v Stanovskom gledališču v Ljubljana od leta 1790 do 1881, Ljubljana 1971; A. Trstenjak, Zgodovina slovenskoga gledališča, Ljubljana 1896). when investigating such phenomena (Puchner 1993). The ways of the reception certainly do not lead only to the stage performance; they also have a special reading tradition. This applies, for example, to the Greek reception of Molière within the intellectual climate of the enlightened Phanariots in the 18th century, while, in Ragusa, at the same time, were performed adaptations of Molière's plays in the theatre. Goldoni's reception (Mangini 1964) in the 18th century in countries outside the range of Burgtheater and its repertory (Turkey, Greece, the Danube Principalities, Serbia) is registered first with reading editions. In the countries under the Habsburg crown the dramatic Trivialliteratur of the Enlightenment, that is, Iffland, Kotzebue, Weiße, etc. occupies Goldoni's place13. Metastasio's reception followed a similar course. While the librettos of the popular dramatist of the 18th century began their triumphant career throughout the world from Vienna (of course they were performed mostly in Italy itself) (Hortschansky 1978), the reading editions came first, circulating among Greeks living abroad and in the Danubian Principalities. Only in Ragusa was one of Metastasio's plays staged as early as the 18th century (Batušić 1978: 65, Πούγγεο 1994: 311-319). In the countries under the half-moon they were staged in Bucharest and Jasy some time before the outbreak of the Greek Revolution¹⁴. The translation of Metastasio's libretto L' Olimpiade by Rigas Fereos, in Vienna (1797), was not meant to be staged (Πούγγεο 1984: 109-119, 194-201, 1997: 241-264). Alfieri's and Voltaire's performance reception was earlier in the areas of rebellion against Turkish rule, not in the countries of Austria-Hungary though (because of censorship). The political questioning of the two dramatists was too late to reach Bulgaria and Turkey, because of the belated entry of these two into the history of the theatre. Shakespeare's reception in the Balkans was universal. First he became known even through German adaptations of sentimental literature, as for instance in the Burgtheater repertory (George Sakellarios' lost Greek translation of Romeo and Juliet comes from this domain. Veloudis 1983: 116, Puchner 1990a: 38, Πούχνερ 1995a: 219 et seq.). Later came the Shakespeare-worship of the German Romanticism. The Romantic-realist Grillparzer was played in the provincial theatres of the Habsburg monarchy, but displayed a tardy blooming in Bulgaria, Greece and Turkey (Deliiwanowna 1972, Veloudis 1983: 350 et seq., Πούχνεο 1995b: 86 et seq., 155, 700, 738, 763 et seq.). Ferdinand Raimund's impact reached only Hungary (Staud 1986). Schiller's success was greater in the areas under Turkish rule, and even in Russia (Stehenski 1959, Peterson 1934). Goethe cannot compete with it (as his reception was restricted to Faust), neither can Victor Hugo. From the middle of the century (19th) an increase in the impact of French comedy, of boulevard and vaudeville, as well as committed social drama can be observed. They were the "stuffings" of the repertory, especially in Greece and Turkey. They took the place of comedy of social criticism and they "held back" the "national" function of the theatre¹⁵. This was the function of Kotzebue with the South Slavs - Bulgarians and Russians excepted (Giesemann 1971) - half a century earlier (Curcin 1909, Giesemann 1975). Until 1805, Kotzebue was the most frequently played dramatist on the German-speaking stages of the whole of Europe. His impact reached South-East Europe,

¹⁰ Though many of these translations were published in Vienna, like the Greek translations of Kotzebue's plays by Konstantinos Kokkinakis (Λαδογιάννη 1996: No. 221-224).
¹⁴ In Jasy *Themistocles* in 1817, in Bucharest the same in 1819 and 1821. The translation was published unonymously in Vienna (Λαδογιάννη 1996: No. 211).
¹⁵ On the Turkish "adaptasyons" see O. Spies, "Die moderne türkische Literatur", in *Handbuch der Orientalistik*, I. Teil,

Vol. V: Altaistik, A' part, Turkologie, Leiden/Köln 1963, p. 336-382. There are no methodical Greek studies on the Greek adaptations (see XQ. Σταματοπούλου-Βασιλάκου, Το ελληνικό θέατορ στην Κωνσταντινούπολη το 19° αιώνα, τόμ. Α', Αθήνα 1994, p. 163 et seq., και Β. Πούχνεq. Η πρόσληψη της γαλλικής διαματουργίας στο νεοελληνκό θέατορ (17° - 20° αιώνας). Μια πρώτη σφαιομκή προσέγγιση, Αθήνα 1999, chap. 6). including Greece¹⁶. His plays were necessary for the beginnings of the amateur troupes of the national theatres of the Balkans, i.g., Serbs, Croats and Slovenians, as an exercise in the art of theatre without high standards of acting and directing (Giesemann 1975: 71-103, Πούχνε_Q 1994: 311-319). This was the use of his countless plays for other European peoples as well, constructed as they were with mastery, sure of success as they always evoked laughter and tears in the audiences (on translations, Goedeke 1893). Even in Ambelakia, in Thessaly, in 1803, there is evidence of an amateur performance of his play *Misanthropy and Repentance*. Even within the 20th century, when Kotzebue has been condemned in central Europe in the histories of literature at best as a representative of para-literature, in Greece another of his plays was translated ($\Sigma L\delta \epsilon_{QN5}$ 1990: 130). For the Southern Slavs, especially the Bulgarians, but also the Serbs and the Croats, the Russian drama was dominant: Gogol, Ostrowski, Chekhov, etc. (especially *The Inspector General* as a comedy of social criticism to be applied to local conditions). For the Slovenians and the Croats as also the Hungarian.

The reception procedure did not always follow the route of translation into the national language. It was achieved through performances in the original language by touring companies and foreign ensembles. In this way of transference, special attention should be given to the phenomenon of German-speaking companies in the Balkan dominions of Austria-Hungary, together with the French companies in the Danubian Principalities and Constantinople, the Italian opera troupes which roamed the Balkans from the Dalmatian coast to Bosporus, not omitting Middle East, particularly after 1840, but partly earlier too (as on the Ionian Islands in the 18th century, Μαυρομούσταχος 1995). The range of the German-speaking companies did not exceed the southeastern military borders (Militärgrenze) between Austria-Hungary and Ottoman Empire in the region of Yugoslavia. There are exceptions: Rallou Karatza brought a Viennese troupe to Bucharest in 1817. The range of the French and Italian companies stretched to the far end of the Ottoman Empire (Rādulescu 1965). Armenian companies came from the Orient and played an important part in the history of the Turkish theatre of the 19th century. They also travelled in Romania and Bulgaria, following the itinerary of Armenian puppeteers and performers, who can be met in the Bucharest court by the end of the 18th century (Πούγνεο 1985: 19 et seq., 76 et seq.). In the same areas, with emphasis on Constantinople, during the second part of the 19th century, amateur Greek companies and also professionals after 1865, took over and played an important part. They toured in the Middle East as well and played in Alexandria, Cairo, Smyrna and Odessa. This rather dense network of performances in foreign languages led to immediate contact with the foreign repertories (and the staging of the plays as well), providing motivation for translations, which are the bases for the first repertories of the developing movements towards the foundation of national theatre.

The difficulties of these theatrical companies which started out without a background of tradition were: the training of the actors (especially in playing women's parts)¹⁷, the organisation and the

¹⁶ During 1790-1860, in the Viennese Burgtheater, they performed Kotzebue's plays for 3650 nights (A.v. Kotzebue, *Schauspiele*. Herausgegeben und kommentiert von J. Mathes. Einführung B. von Wiese, Frankfurt/Main 1972, p. 13). See also Veloudis 1983: 109 et seq., and Πούχνερ 1994: 311 et seq.

¹⁷Two examples of it only: 1) in the Greek amateur productions, in Bucharest, before the Revolution, only

Konstantinos Kyriakos Aristias played women's parts. He had specialised in them until the first leading actresses showed up; 2) in Turkey, until the end of the 19th century, only Greek and Armenian actresses performed on stage. As late as 1923 did the director Ertugrul manage to persuade a Turkish actor to let his wife appear on stage (see in detail M.Özgü, "Türkei", H. Kindermann (ed.), *Theatengeschichte Europas*, vol. 10, Satzburg 1974, p. 521-573, esp. 566 et seq.). technical equipment, but mainly the formation of a national repertory as original plays expressing the ideology and function of a national theatre did not exist yet or were not sufficient. Then a provisional "handy" repertory was thought necessary. This was the use of the German dramatists of the Enlightenment Trivialliteratur from 1800 on (Kotzebue chiefly). Later the romantic tragedy of destiny and horror took over, together with the historical chivalric plays in the broad range of the Burgtheater's influence (Slovenia, Croatia, Serbia, Hungary). In Greece after 1850 and in Turkey later, the French dramatists "of the day" supplemented in this way the repertory of the sparse original dramatic production. However, the foreign ephemeral plays were transferred into a native climate: they adjusted the names, they used proverbs and sayings, they chose the colour of the expressiveness, they used dialects and idioms, they changed the place of action into a native one, etc. Such efforts in "Serbianisation" have been identified in the first translation of a play by Goldoni into the Serbian language¹⁸. These techniques are typical to Kotzebue translations by the Southern Slavs (Giesemann 1975, Curčin 1909). "Hellenisations", even using dialect, are stated as a policy in Ikonomou's prologue to the Greek translation of Molière's Miser, in 1816 (Σκαλιόρας 1970: 25). In Turkey, during the last decades of the 19th century, a whole theatrical form called "adaptasyon" was created, transferring into the Near East French comedies mostly, performed by Armenian companies in Constantinople (And 1963/64: 86 et seq.). Such interventions and adaptations into certain dramatic models have a wide morphology: they range from the simple adjustment of the names to the total re-arrangement of the plot, with added hints and implications, scenes containing cryptic references, etc. altering the translation into an original play in effect and reducing the original into a mere source of inspiration (on the typology of the interventions, Giesemann 1975: 71-103). Such alteration strategies are known in the Balkan-Mediterranean drama of the Renaissance and baroque, in which the Italian models, despite their incomplete translation, present a picture of a deep transformation and re-creation. The changing of titles causes a multitude of literary problems, as it often does not permit the recognition of the original. The wide range of the Trivialdramatik, that is, of the ephemeral plays for everyday needs and consumption, covering a large number of dramatic works, often inhibits or complicates the tracking down of the originals used (i.g., the Serbs Vujic and Popović presented adaptations of Kotzebue works as their own, Ćurčin 1907).

The conditions for investigating theatrical reception in the several countries are quite different and we cannot analyse the whole phenomenon comparatively (Puchner 1993: 74 et seq., 1994: 68 et seq.). We can report some results, however. Molière's and Goldoni's reception has the purpose of didactic comedy aimed at reforming character and morals, according to the interpretation of the Enlightenment. Metastasio's rococo Classicist librettos fulfil a similar function to the French classicists Racine and Corneille: they are the playwrighting models, while for the Greeks also sources of remembrance of ancient greatness (an example is Rigas' translation of Metastasio's *L'Olimpiade*). In any case the success of the play is important for the reception procedures. This goes especially for the plays of Kotzebue, whose comedies and emotional, lachrymose dramas do not always belong to the didactic morality of the Enlightenment, but ignore or go beyond the moralistic codes of the time. They are, however, easily acted and staged, which means that they could easily be performed by untrained amateurs, whereas they always succeeded in extracting from the audience the expected reactions (laughter, emotion, compassion), because of their calculated construction. Quite a few dramatists of the Balkan national literatures were apprentices in the "school" of the controversial German dramatist

¹⁸ Janković defended comedy in the prologue of the translation of *Mercatanti*, in 1787, and praised its truth to

life, together with the need for translations, as his countrymen did not speak foreign languages (Herrity 1980).

of para-literature. Even the great Goethe, when he was director of the Weimar court theatre, had to stage plays of the writer he despised¹⁹. Schiller was in general much more successful than Goethe. Together with Alfieri and Victor Hugo, they were the chief inspirators of the Romantic national drama. Grillparzer's historical dramas were not as useful for a national "exploitation" in the Balkans, because they lack a tangible national commitment. Shakespeare is sovereign without rivals among all the peoples of South-East Europe. His reception began with translations made in the spirit of the German Enlightenment and culminated with Romantic Shakespeare-worship³⁰. The reception of ancient drama was quite restricted, beginning in fact only in the era of Modernism, with Max Reinhardt's spectacular stagings (Fuhrich-Leisler 1976, Jacobi 1963, Andreescu 1973, Majestić 1962). Adaptations of the German and French dramatists of para-literature are to be found everywhere²¹. By the end of 19th century a certain preference for the Slav playwrights is observable, perhaps as a consequence of Pan-Slavism.

With the invasion of Modernism (Naturalism, Symbolism, Impressionism, Neo-Romanticism, Expressionism, Futurism, etc.) the dynamic of the reception mechanisms becomes more complicated and anthopocentric because of better communication and the newly appearing internationalism. The "-ism" movements led to medleys and style mixings which can only be examined separately. The model of transferring the innovations from the cultural capital to the periphery weakens gradually (for Greece, Πούχνερ 1988: 329-379), because the centres of cultural innovations move incessantly and do not last long.

Drama

The dynamism of theatre history in the Balkan countries during the 19th century renders impossible a typological comparison (Puchner 1994: 23-64, Πούχνεφ 1993: 49-112), which can focus only on drama. The history of the theatre in the 19th century can be approached only incidentally in its variety. In Hungary, theatrical activity remained decentralised until the foundation of the national theatre in Budapest. Slovenia, as a country under the authority of the Habsburg Monarchy, remained long in the immediate influence of the Burgtheater and Vienna censorship. In Croatia, Zagreb became the centre of Illyricism (the union of South-Slav peoples), a fact with direct consequences for the theatre, whereas the Dalmatian coast became unimportant for cultural developments. In Serbia, Novi Sad remained for a long time the second cultural centre, with a Serbian national theatre. Romanian theatre history is gradually clarified only through Greek (after Jasy and Bucharest, the Transylvanian cities became important for the history of the theatre). The Bulgarian theatre began in the mid-19th century (first as a refugee theatre in Romania) in Philippopolis (Plovdiv) and Sofia²². The Greek theatre, only at

¹⁹ In the court theater of Weimar, 1791-1817, in 4809 nights, 667 of Kotzebue's plays were staged (13,87%). Among the 600 staged plays, Kotzebue figured first with his 87 plays (14,5%) (C.A.H. Burkhardt, *Das Repertoire des Weimarischen Theaters unter Goethes Leitung*, Hamburg 1891, p. XXXV et seq.).

²⁰ In the regions of Austria-Hungary Monarchy, the Burgtheater repertory affected decisively the reception of the English dramatist. ²¹ The quite restricted impact of the English theatre, Shakespeare excepted, is interesting. It was imported in the Balkans through the German theatre, however.
²⁰ On the history of Bulgarian theatre see in selection: J. Schaulov, Das Theater in Bulgarien, Sofija [1964]; K. Deržavin, Bolgarksij teatr, Moskva/Leningrad 1950; I. Popov, Minaloto na bülgarskija teatür. Spomeni i dokumenti, vol. 1-5, Sofija 1939-60; K. Popova, Das bulgarische Theater, Sofija [1970]; P. Athanassova, Die a late date and step by step, acquired a new centre of developments in Athens, while the Ionian Islands and the cities of the Greek Diaspora (especially Constantinople until 1922) (Σταματοπούλου-Bασιλάχου 1994/96) remained the centres of remarkable theatrical activity. In Turkey, during the second half of the 19th century, the Armenian, Greek, French and Italian companies (amateurs and professionals) were the vehicles of theatrical life in the Bosporus (Borcakl/Koçer 1973, Sevengil 1959/62, Özgü 1974, Spuler 1968). The Turks came into play only after the Young Turks' revolution. Here, as in other cases, drama preceded practical theatre.

In the framework of national drama, historical drama and patriotic tragedy shoulder the task of substantiating the existence of the nation in the remotest possible past, onto which the ideological background of nationalism in the regeneration phase is projected. For the Southern Slavs and the Hungarians this past is the Middle Ages, for the Romanians, the Roman Empire, for modern Greeks, Greek antiquity. The plot of the plays itself has plenty of scope for variety (from the political drama about tyrannicide to sentimental love intrigue), dependent as it is on the tastes of the time. The plays may belong to several style mixtures, ranging from the domestic drama of the Enlightenment, passing through the Romantic and chivalrous drama and tragedy of destiny and horror, to the realistic play of manners in a rustic milieu, the musical vaudeville or rustic operetta with plenty of "couleur locale", or the naturalistic sensational play, a document of social sordidness. They are based on the data of local theatrical and literary history, on political history, the particular historical circumstances of the time, as well as on the aesthetic and dramatic profile of the playwrights. Despite all this phenomenological and stylistic variety, the basic function of national and historical drama remains the same: the awakening and cultivation of national self-consciousness, emphasizing the difference from other peoples and underlining the native element, giving life to existing or developing pictures of "Us" and "Others" ("self-stereotypes" and "other-stereotypes") of the remote past, offering them to the spectator so that he can identify himself. This procedure gives a sense of continuity through the centuries, serving as the foundation stone of the national and state ideology of the new or recently formed national entity. Historical drama and patriotic tragedy in the national language is an act of "raison d' état" and many sources of the period reflect the awareness of the political mission of writers and actors and other involved in a national theatre, as they organised such national events with mass audience participation and intense sentimental reactions during and after the show.

There are many examples of this enthusiasm: *Veronika Deseniška* in Slovenia may not be a characteristic one²³, but the Illyricist movement in Zagreb created the *Teuta* by Demetrios Demetriou (1844), a typical national-historical drama with a contemporary reference (Barac 1977: 127 et seq.). Jovan Sterija Popović wrote many national-historical dramas, concerning the history of other Balkan peoples too, transcending, thanks to their humanism, the narrow framework of the national-historical drama in general²⁴. Djura Jakšić and Laza Kostić are the

Entwicklung des bulgarischen Theaters bis zum Weltkrieg, Diss. Wien 1947; St. Karakostov, Bülgarskijat teatür, Sofija 1972; A.B. Despotowa, "Bulgarien", H. Kindermann (ed.), Theatergeschichte Europas, Vol, 10, Salzburg 1974, p. 284-304; W. Köppe, epilogue in: Bulgarische Dramen, Berlin 1974, p. 483-501.

²³On the adaptation of the historical subject of Veronika von Desenitz (1422) see M. Jevnikar, "Veronika di Desenice" nella letteratura slovena, Trieste 1965 and F. Jesenoveć, "Jurčičeva u Tomičeva Veronika Deseništa", Celjski Sbornik 1969/70, p. 199-212.

²⁴ On the half-Greek Serb dramatist there is an extensive bibliography. See L. Subotin's bibliography "Bibliografija o Jovanu St. Popoviću", in Jovan Sterija Popović, Beograd, SANU 1974, p. 641-671. Also the paper collection: Jovan Sterija Popović 1806, 1856, 1981. Zbornik Matice Srpske za književnost i jezik XXIX/2 (Beograd 1981), p. 173-447. On his intellectual biography also M. Tokin, Jovan most typical cases²⁵. The situation with the Hungarians was different. Bánk bán by József Kátona wins the rosette of the first and most important Hungarian national drama (Kont 1906: 149, 153 et seq., Czigány 1984: 145 et seq., Kiadó 1982: 174 et seq., Keresztury 1966). An example of the difference between the Hungarian national drama and the others is the fact that Imre Madách's famous philosophical Tragedy of the Man does not represent the data of Balkan drama of the 19th century26. In Romania, Vasile Alecsandri and Bogdan Petriceicu Hasdeu cultivated the national historical drama (Cetatea Neamtului 1857 by the former, Razvan si Vidra 1867 by the latter, Dietrich 1974: 466 et seq.). In Bulgaria there are Dobri Vojnikov, Ivan Vazov and Petko Todorov²⁷. In Greece all the plays with ancient subjects acquired a patriotic function, beginning with Achilles by Athanassios Christopoulos, published in Vienna in 1805 (Balérac 1969: 35 et seq.). Later, the Greeks also wrote plays with Byzantine subjects or about the heroes of the national liberation struggle of 1821, which inspired a multitude of historical plays (the first being Nikiratos by Evanthia Kairi, Nafplion 1826), impossible to mention them all here (Πούχνεο 2000). This trend was instigated by the poetry and drama contests which intentionally aimed at cultivating the national historical drama written in the puristic Greek language, as an expression of the dominant state ideology (Μουλλάς 1989, Πετράκου 1999). In Turkey, the play Native Country or Silistria (1873) by Namik Kemal may be considered as the first patriotic drama²⁸; the real patriotic drama, however, developed only in the period of Ata Türk.

To summarise, one could stress stylistic variety and functional stability. Specialised developments can be observed in Hungary and Turkey. In Greece patriotic subjects included antiquity, though they mostly used Middle Ages or the years of the rebellion against the Turks.

Sterija Popović, Beograd 1956, as well as E. Klier, Jovan Sterija Popović, 1806-1856, Wrschatz 1934, See also the list of the exhibition Jovan Sterija Popović, 1806-1856-1956, Novi Sad 1956 and the fundamental studies of St. Novaković, "Jovan Sterija Popović", Glas SAN 4 (1907), p. 1-121, Sl. Marković, Jovan Sterija Popovic, Novi Sad 1968 and the volumes of studies Knjiga v Steriji, Beograd 1956 and Jovan Sterija Popovic, Beograd 1965.

25 On Djura Jakšić (1832-1878) see J. Popović, Djura Jakšić i njegovo doba, Beograd 1949, R. Konstantinović, Djura Jakšić, Beograd 1961. On Laza Kostić (1841-1910) see Barac 1977: 142 et seq. On the stagings of his plays R. Jovanović, "Dela Laze Kostića na Beogradskoj pozornici", Književnost 16 (1961) 32, p. 81-89. See also R. Lauer, "Zum Problem der Wortspiele bei Laza Kostić", Die Welt der Slaven 137 (1961) 387, p. 93-113. 26 "Az ember tragédiája", written in 1861, first performance only in 1883. On Madách see I. Sötér, "Imre Madách" (1823-1864), Acta litteraria Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae 1 (1957), p. 27-85. On the meaning of the play see G. Voinovich, Madách und 'Die Tragödie des Menschen", Budapest/Leipzig 1935 and I. Sötér, "Madách et les courants de l'époque", Acta litteraria Academiae Scientiarum Hungaricae 7 (1965), p. 5-18. On the scenic career of the play A. Németh, Az ember tragédiája a szinpadon, Budapest 1933 and A. Faj, "Madáchs 'Tragödie des Menschen' in Ungarn seit 1945", Ural-altaische Jahrbücher 34 (1962), p. 268-276.

²⁷ On Dobri P. Vojnikov's (1833-1878) six Romantic tragedies see P. Dinekov, Vizroždenski pisateli, Sofija 1964, p. 209-224; G. Konstantinov, Nova bülgarska literatura, Sofija 1947, p. 295-313; B. Penev, Istorija na novata būlgarska literatura, vol. 4, Sofija 1936, p. 792-832. On Vasov's historical dramas, see J. Vuzkov, "Vasovata istoričesko drama, Metodi stil", Teatūr 1960/2, p. 34-44 and M. Cavena, "Za novootkritike piesi na Ivan Vasov", Izledvenija v čest na akad. M. Arnaudov, Sofija 1970, p. 213-234. On Petko Todorov's (1879-1916) Pūrvite, produced by the National Theatre of Sofia in 1907, see L. Georgiev, Petko J. Todorov. Monografija, Sofija 1963 and of the same author "Ezik i stil na Petko J. Todorov", Ezik i literatura 20 (1965), p. 382-403.

²⁸ Vatan Yähut Silistre, performed in 1873. There is a German translation: Kemal Bey, Heimat oder Silistria, Schauspiel in vier Acten. Aus dem Türkischen übersetzt und herausgegeben von L. Pekotsch, Wien 1897. See Horn 1902: 30 seq., Spies 1963: 377. The plots concern historical personalities, leaders and kings, but usually they deviate essentially from the historical facts. The objective is not the study of sources and the historical truth (though they do not disdain legends and myths as sources) but the sensational message, the noble passions, the relentless conflicts, the tragic fall of the protagonist, the "Haupt-und-Staataktion" of great history on the stage, displaying in front of the audience the glorious and sometimes pretty dark past. At the sight of such a spectacle, feelings of national enthusiasm were aroused and the awareness of brotherhood, of "We", was intensified. The historical drama of the national theatre had a cohesive effect on the group of the spectators. In fact "history" is really just décor. The plots follow the standards of the time, that is the Classicistic drama of French or Italian origin and, in the countries with a previous theatrical tradition, the baroque historical drama as well. As these plays were charged with the national prestige and the teaching of the national myth, the linguistic style was important: in many countries the condition of the language was still fluid and conflicts broke out about the literary language as a national factor. The topicality of the 19th century national drama did not lie only in the subject, but in the handling of the language as well. Greece is rather an extreme example of this phenomenon: no play of the puristic historical drama of the 19th century has ever been staged during the 20^{th29}. The style mixtures of certain writers and plays depended each time on the local conventions and the general course of the national literature or/and the specific aesthetic model of a theatrical form (i.g. prose dialogue in the dramatic Trivialliteratur of the Enlightenment and the domestic bourgeois drama, high rhetoric for the Classicistic drama, open forms for the Romantic plays, symmetrical drama structure following Gustav Freytag, etc., see Dietrich 1961). Only the social and political function of this kind of drama remained permanent. It fulfilled its objective by presenting in the national theatre a patriotic teaching of history, a knowledge of the past, whose glory radiated into the present and lended meaning and dignity to it. It was a guide and a manual of deeper self-consciousness for the nation.

This necessity and function, that is, the giving of a meaning to and the psychological rallying of the group, become intelligible if we consider the chaotic conditions of domestic affairs or the bitter disillusionment after the high idealistic expectations of national regeneration. The present is the subject of comedy of social criticism. If historical patriotic drama was a course towards the myth of the nation, satirical comedy was an excursion to contemporary reality. It did not consolidate the state ideology, but criticised and denounced the problems; it demanded correction. As has already been mentioned, the similarity of the political conditions in the domestic affairs of many Balkan countries after the regeneration phase, permits to some extend a transfer of comic situations castigated by comedy from one country to another: from Greece to Bulgaria and Romania, from Serbia to Croatia, etc., and in the 20th century by Caragiale and Nušić even further. The starting point was usually the comedy of morals and character by Molière and Goldoni within the didactic scope of the Enlightenment, and even the German dramatic Trivialliteratur of Iffland, Kotzebue, Schröder, etc. In the sophisticated technique of the situation comedy, stock characters were used to represent a certain social reality: the bourgeois swollen with pride and his conceited wife, the upstart social climber and political careerist, a society at the turning point from rural patriarchy to urbanisation still in progress and unassimilated as yet, characterised by moral disorientation and partly grotesque misunderstanding of the new ideology. The comedy of deviating behaviour exposed the characters to the laughter of the audience, its

²⁹The only exception is Spyros Evangelatos' production of *Maria Doxapatri* (1858) by Demetrios Vernardakis, in 1963 and 1968. However, it was translated in the demotic (colloquial) language.

criticism and condemnation. It derived its corrective norms and its evaluating ideas from the "regeneration" era, though they had not always been applied in practice: this was the "patriotic" contribution of the comedy of social criticism.

We can find many examples in the several national literatures of the Balkans. Criticism of the nobility is heard in Anton Linhart's early Slovenian comedies (1789 and 1790)³⁰. The abolition of patriotism by the bourgeois is portrayed in Ivan Cankar's play For the Benefit of the Nation (1901)³¹. The Croatian comedy The Scorcerer's Apprentice (Matijaš Grabancijaš Dijak, 1804) by Titus Brezovački satirises the superstitious villagers in the spirit of urban Enlightenment, while we meet a criticism of the petit-bourgeoisie in Janko Vurković's plays (Barac 1977: 148 et seq.). The first Serbian comedy, from Jovan Sterija Popović's pen, satirises the stingy Greek retailer of the Balkans Kir Jania (The Miser, 1837), satirically parodying his own father, and is still played today³². The rest of this writer's comedies parody the nouveau riche bourgeoise, marital life, the fake patriotism of his fellow-countrymen during the revolution of 1848 and the aping of foreign manners and customs by the Serb bourgeois (French and German expressions, in Kir Janja Greek as well). Milovan Glišić's comedies were written in the transition to the ethological subjects of the village (Popović 1902, Gligorić 1968: 86-112). The prolific Bronislav Nušić has an inexhaustible repertory of social criticism, while the moral mirror of his comedies reaches the mid-War years³³. The technique of Károly Kisfaludy's Hungarian comedies with the picturesque characters of rural feudal society is mostly orientated towards the theatre of the German dramatists of Trivialliteratur. Only Ignác Nágy touches on political subjects with his comedy Prefectorial Pools (1843), satirising the falsification of the election results and expressing a demand for more liberalism, the subject of a series of Hungarian comedies; here the transition towards the rural idyll is rather easy and the same can be said about consumption comic drama in general (i.g. István Toldy's, see Kont 1906: 149 et seq., 151 et seq., 166, 216 et seq.). The philosophic fairy-play Csongór és Tünde by Mihály Vörösmarty is unique (1831, first staging only in 1879, Czigány 1984: 130 et seq.). In Romania, comedy is chiefly associated with

³⁰Zupanova mička, 1789. On its model see A. Gspan, "L. Zupanova Mička in Richtereva 'Die Feldmühle'", Slovenski jezik 4 (1940) p. 84-97; by the same author, introduction to Anton. T. Linhart, Zbrano delo 1, Ljubljana 1958, p. 460-473. Also Slodnjak, Slovenska slovstvo, Ljubljana 1968, p. 77 et seq. Linhart's second comedy, Ta veseli dan ali Matiček se ženi (1790), is an adaptation of Beaumarchais' La folle journée, ou Le mariage de Figaro (1785). See J. Veyranc, "Une adaptation slovène du 'Mariage de Figaro' de Beaumarchais, le 'Matiček se ženi' de T. Linhart", Annales de Faculté des Lettres d'Aix 36 (1962), p. 117-141. ³¹Za narodov blagor (1901, produced in Prague in 1905 and in Ljubljana in 1906. See J. Groo-Kozak, Sczesna twórczosc dramatyczna Ivana Cankara, Warzawa 1968, J. Kos, "Idejna in oblikovna tipologija Cankarjeve dramatike", Jezik i slovstvo 1969/1, p. 10-16, and R. Sajko, H. Ibsen in prve drame I. Cankarja, Ljubljana 1966, esp. p. 31-44.

²² Tvrdica 1837, Kir Janja in the second edition. Selective bibliography: D. Živaljević, "Kir Janja na konstruktivnoj pozorniči", Život i rad 4 (1931), vol. 7, part 44, p. 623-639; G. Petrović, "Strija i njegov 'Kir Janja'', Srpska scena 1943/15, p. 446-460, 1943/16, p. 469-472; J. Popović, "Tvrdica' Jovana Sterije Popovića", Izbor, Novi Sad 1953, p. 235 et seq.

³³ There is an extended bibliography on Nušić. His Complete Works were published in 1966, in Belgrade and occupy 25 volumes. See Barae 1977: 228 et seq.; A. Chvatov, Bronislav Nušić, 1864-1938, Moskva/Leningrad 1964; M. Boković, Bronislav Nušić, Beograd 1964; L.P. Lichaceva (ed), Bibliografičeskij ukazatel, Moskva 1965; B. Ničev, Bronislav Nušić (Monografija), Sofija 1962, etc. On the scenic career of his comedies, see J. Kulundžić, "Savremeno scensko tumačenje Nušića", Letopis Matica srpske 140 (1964), p. 1-28. Vasile Alecsandri³⁴ and Ion Luca Caragiale³⁵. The former follows the French comedy of morals (Drouhet 1924). The latter, with his demonic and grotesque caricatures prepares the way for the absurdist drama of Ionesco (Minea 1977, Ionesco 1965: 117-120). Bulgarian political comedy also is full of careerists, petit-bourgeois, frauds and followers of political agents: Ivan Vazov: Vesnikarin li? (Are You a Journalist?), Službogonci 1903 (Careerists), Anton Strasimirov Svekūrva 1907 (Mother in Law), especially in Stefan L. Kostov's (1879-1939) plays Golemanov (1928), Vrašalec (1928, Fortune-teller), Skakalci (1931, Cicadas) (Dietrich 1974: 455 et seq.). In Greece, political comedy blooms especially in the era of Bavarian rule (1833-1862) (Βάλσας 1994: 311 et seq., 324 et seq., 353 et seq., Δελβερούδη 1997). On the Ionian Islands, when they were a British protectorate, this comedy had an aggressive style. Demetrios Vyzantios turned to the linguistic problem in his Babylonia (1836) (it reached eight editions during the 19th century, Λαδογιάννη 1996: no 367). Michael Chourmouzis is considered today as the main representative of the political comedy of morals (Λιγνάδης 1986, Παπαϊωάννου 1991). In Turkey, during the 19th century there was practically no comedy of social criticism. Ibrahim Sinasi's The Marriage of the Poet (1859) is against conventional marriage.

To sum up, one could conclude that similarities of subject predominate: weak points of the political systems ("foreign rule", bribery, corruption), together with foreign-worship, aping foreign vogues, vain and stupid petit-bourgeois ideology to political megalomania, undigested transition from the farmer to the bourgeois, leading to a dangerous vacuum of values impossible to fill even by the most blatant patriotism. The styles are mostly the comedy of morals and character of the Enlightenment, later the comedy of intrigue, together with small forms and open structures (like Chourmouzis' *Dialogues* and Caragiale's *Moments*). The comic element is usually based on deviating behaviour, that is, deviating from the norms of patriotic ideals of the regeneration era, the ridiculous difference between "is" and "must", between moral demand and real action. The construction of the plot often follows the comic schematisation of situations. Some writers give new dimensions to the dialogue, when there are obstacles to the unimpeded communication of the characters on stage (misunderstandings, intentional mishearing, two soliloquies instead of a dialogue, etc., Lauinger 1964) leading to extreme situations and reaching the modern shrinkage of the language as a means of communication (representing the shrinkage of the shrinkag

Before we come to the transition to Modernism, however, when the developments show a centrifugal and differentiating tendency in the Balkans, not permitting any broader comparisons, we should investigate another genre of the same origin, concerning the subjects of South-Eastern European drama, that about rural life and the world of the village. Interest in the countryside awakens in the era of Realism, within the framework of a general ethnological

³⁴During the period 1845-60 he wrote about 10 comedies, following the technique and structure of the French tradition. See G. Alexici, Geschichte der Rumänischen Literatur, Leipzig 1906, p. 110-113; G.C. Nicolescu, Viata lui Vasile Alecsandri, Bucureşti 1964; E. Radulescu-Pogoneanu, Viata lui Vasile Alecsandri, Craiova 1954; M. Ruffini, Vasile Alecsandri, Brescia 1949, etc., On his comedies see also N. Iorga, La societé roumaine du XIXe siècle dans le théâtre roumain, Paris 1926. ³⁵ On Caragiale see selectively: I. Roman, Caragiale, Bucureşti 1964; D.S. Murarasu, Viața lui Ion Luca Caragiale, Bucureşti 1940; A. Colombo, Via e opere di Ion Luca Caragiale, Roma 1934; G. Bertoni, La lingua di un umorista romeno, Firenze 1930; H.P. Petrescu, Caragiales Leben und Werk, Diss. Leipzig 1911; S. Casimir, Caragiale, universul comic, Bucureşti 1967; S. Ciolescu, Ion Luca Caragiale, Bucureşti 1967.

and folklore interest in the ways of life of the agrarian population. In the era of Romanticism many collections of traditional songs and tales were published and were regarded as linguistic monuments of the collective creation of a national literature. Both views, Realistic and Romantic, are mingled into the national ideology, in which the bourgeois looked back nostalgically at their own past. The "locus amoenus" of the lost paradise of the nation was of course ideologically exploited and idealised as folklore: the native characters of the village, with their strong and picturesque dialect, in authentic scenery depicting the couleur local, serve as representatives of an idealised national culture. In it, the values of the restricted world of the village are still valid, functioning and contrasting with the relativity of values of the bourgeois in the cities. The uniqueness and ancestral quality of nationality are traced back into the details of local tradition. The genuine and familiar definite fact guarantees cultural uniqueness. Dialect, folk music, costume, dance, customs and architecture, all these elements are used by the theatre. In the transition from Romanticism to Realism, folklore and social criticism may co-exist harmoniously. The loss of the social criticism element may lead to the shallow rural operetta and vaudeville. On the other hand, historical drama may be transformed into rural drama of social conflict by adding the social criticism dimension. The subjects of traditions and ballads are often turned into plays. If we compare this phenomenon with political comedy, we notice that it is a kind of escape from reality into a redemptive and undamaged world. At the same time, this kind of drama contributes to the building of the national myth, carving the image of "We" with all the local details, even though it is only a nostalgic and folklorised ideal. From the point of view of "national" function, this folklore theatre is nearer the national-historical drama as an ideological application of "raison d' état" than the comedy of social criticism. In the transition from Realism to Naturalism the "locus amoenus" of the picturesque country idyll may be ruined and transformed into "locus terribilis". In it, the analytical and critical approach proceeds to a horrible anatomy of poverty and degradation of the rural population and a forceful description of its living conditions.

In the various Balkan literatures, this thematic level of folklore drama is represented with varied intensity or meaning. The Slovenian social drama King in Betanova (Kralj na Betanojvi 1904) by Ivan Cankar takes place against the background of a rural industry. The Croat Milan Ogrizović dramatises subjects of the homeland and traditional poetry (Barac 1977: 242). In the mid-War years there is also a transition towards a fascist-like concentration on earth and blood (Blut-und-Bodendramatik). The Serb dramatist Bronislav Stanković describes the shrinking of old patriarchical structures of society (Tašana 1901, Kostana 1902, Janković 1902). In Hungary, during the decade of 1840, there is a whole type of melodramatic and operetta-like popular plays with life in province as their subject ("népszínmü", Kont 1906: 162 et seq., Czigány 1984: 154 et seq., Combos 1933), a genre a little like vaudeville. It has many interpolated songs and musical pieces and is clearly influenced by the Viennese popular theatre. Ede Szigligeti is considered its chief representative ('Osvath 1959, Kiadó 1982: 286 et seq.). This form was transformed into operetta by József Szigeti after 1875, when there was another turning-point towards the naturalistic play of social conflict (Kiadó 1982: 269, 305 et seq., 316). In Romania, the same form is represented by Caragiale's peasant tragedy Napasta (1890) and in Bulgaria by Raco Stojanov's ethological Majstori (Dietrich 1974: 459). In Greece, a movement towards ethology was created after 1880. producing a special theatrical form somewhat like vaudeville, called "comidvllion" (comic idvll). The action takes place in an urban milieu, using European music (Maroula's Fortune, by Demetrios Koromilas, 1889). There is its serious counterpart, the "dramatic idyll", its action in rural context (The Lover of the Shepherdess, by the same writer, 1891) (Χατζηπανταζής 1981, Δοομάζος 1980, Παπαϊωάννου 1983). The ethological context becomes deeper in the Symbolist drama *Trisevgeni* by Kostis Palamas. The action takes place in a village, but it goes beyond the realistic reproduction of the couleur local (Πούχνερ 1995b: 175-578).

The dramatic adaptation of ballads is a distinctive case. The famous Serbian ballad about Hasan Aga's women "Hasanaginica", translated by Goethe (Kretzenbacher 1976), was dramatised in Serbia six times after the beginning of the 20th century (Ilic 1966). Such dramatisations are substantiated in Romania and Greece, using the well-known ballad "The Bridge of Arta" (*Mesterul Manole*, Megas 1976), which was dramatised at least four times (Πούχνεο 1992: 307-330), in Bulgaria once (*Zidari* 1902 by Petko Todorov, see Canka 1981) and in Romania 24 times up to now. The interpretative possibilities of the vivid tradition about the walling in of the master builder's wife in the portals of the bridge (to "haunt" the work) range from naïve ethology, through the Nietzchean superman and the dilemma of consciousness about human sacrifice and guilt, to the Expressionist ritual of a mythical mysterious human sacrifice (Berlogea 1974: 349 et seq.).

The invasion of Modernism

The network of the "-isms" in the last decade of the 19th century and even later in many European countries, in all the fields of art, created as a reaction to the sway of Naturalism, had a definite impact on the theatre as well, especially Impressionism, Symbolism, Neo-Romanticism, Expressionism, etc. In South-East Europe it was absorbed with delays and gaps, or with several innovations and far from typical mixtures. In Greece, for example, there is almost no extreme Naturalism in drama, while the delay is great. Realism is dominant in plays of commitment and "thesis" plays. Symbolism is widespread, Expressionism almost not at all (Πούγνεο 1988: 381-408). The reasons for these particular mechanisms of reception are complex and resist a level, one-dimensional analysis (perhaps in this case they have to do with the absence of watertight bourgeoisie, Πούχνεο 1988: 329-379). In the several national literatures of the Balkans, the subjects, the aesthetic models and the style mixtures are liable to changes of function and expression, while the period labelling often gives a different picture from the one known by the great European literatures, though in Europe the picture is anything but unified either: while Naturalism can be considered as a sequel to Realism with an altered scientific view and a thematic narrowing of the investigating lens to the lower strata of the population, the anti-Naturalism movements like Impressionism and Expressionism depart, as they have totally different aesthetic schedules. Isolated dramatists like Ibsen, Hauptmann, Strindberg, etc. in the several periods of their work belong to different currents. These methodological difficulties in the analysis of Modernism increase in the South-Eastern European countries because of the different theatrical traditions and reception mechanisms. However, in spite of these differences, they mark the ending and gradual withdrawal of the political and social function of the "national drama". This has to do with the fact that at this historical moment, with the exception of Albania, today's FYROM and to some extend Turkey, the phase of national independence and consolidation has been completed. Consequently the historical and political basis of the "national drama" gradually vanishes. This does not mean that the dramatic forms of patriotic tragedy and comedy of social criticism vanish as well in the 20th century. In any event, drama and theatre do not have this main political and social mission for the nation any more, as in the previous century. This leads to a handling of subjects less loaded with ideological functions and to the creation of a wider opening into the stylistic and aesthetic possibilities. Poets and dramatists are no national heroes any more, but craftsmen and artists of literature. The national theatres open secondary, experimental stages, covering the artistic needs of the avant-garde, which are not subject to the same degree to the restrictions of the official cultural policy³⁶.

Modernism in drama appears with completely different currents and artists in the various Balkan countries. In Slovenia, Ivan Cankar is the central figure of Modernism and his Symbolist drama The beautiful Vida, about the feverish fantasies of a dying student (Lepe Vida, 1912, Slodnjak 1958: 279-286). In Croatia, Modernism appears much more violently and suddenly: first with the Impressionist one-act plays of the Dubrovnik Trilogy by Vojnović³⁷, later with Milan Begović's (Barac 1977: 249 et seq.) and Miroslav Krleža's³⁸ early Expressionist plays³⁹, which found in Branko Gavella a worthy director (Batušić 1974: 257 pass.). Serbia has nothing remarkable to show in this field, except perhaps for Bogdan Popović's Symbolist plays (Grčević 1971). In Hungary, the transition to Modernism develops more smoothly: from the "thesis" bourgeois plays by Gergely Csiky (Kont 1906: 225 et seq., Kiadó 1982: 314 et seq.), emerges by Sandor Bródy, Zsigmond Móricz, Imre Földes, Ferencz Herczeg and others (Dietrich 1974: 61 et seq., 413 et seq., Kiadó 1982: 308 et seq.), a kind of "drawing room" Naturalism culminating in the somewhat "marketable" social criticism by Ferenc Molnar (Dietrich 1974: 417 et seq.), followed by other Hungarian dramatists "for export" in the mid-War years. The special place occupied by Hungary is made apparent by the fact that even during the transitional phase to Modernism, the technical dramatic perfectionism of the "well-made" play, influenced by the boulevard theatre is not abandoned.

In Romania things are completely different. The idyllic pastoral tragedies by Vasile Alecsandri with the imaginary mythical figures from ancient Rome (*Fāntāna Blanduziei* 1884, *Ovidiu* 1885) prefigure Neo-Romanticism. Victor Eftimiou cultivated the Symbolist fairy-play (Micu 1958) together with the allegorical drama (*Cocosul negru* 1913), experimented with subjects from ancient mythology (*Prometeu* 1919, *Atrizi*, see Berlogea 1974: 349) and also wrote farce-like moralistic comedies about the provinces (*Omul care a vāzut moartea* 1928). Camil Expressionism starts with Lucian Blaga (*Zalmoxe* 1921, a pagan mystery from the Dacian mythology, *Children's Crusade* 1930, Paleologu 1966, Gana 1967). Gheorge Ciprian's Surrealist

³⁶ The repertory of the "national theatres" as first and representative stages of a country, was subjected to calculations and restrictions of the cultural policy. It could also become easily the object of conflicts between political parties or the press, etc., as even in the 20th century those theatres still have a mission to accomplish. "Dubrovačka trilogia (1902) and the epilogue Maskerate espod kuplia (1923). See C. Lucerna, "Die 'Ragusaner Trilogie' und ihr Dichter", Mitteilungen der Deutschen Akademie 11 (1936), p. 529-551. The third part can be found also in a German translation in Die Brücke 51-53 periodical ("Das kroatische Drama des 20. Jahrhunderts", Zagreb 1977, p. 27-66.

38 Kraljevo, Kristofor Kolumbo, Michelangelo Buonarrotti,

Adam i Eva, Golgota (1922). See B. Donat, O pjesničkom teatru Miroslava Krleža, Zagreb 1970 and A. Kadić, "Krleža's tormented visionaries", Slavonic and East European Review 45 (1967), p. 46-64.

³⁹ On extreme Croatian Expressionism see also B. Hećimović, "Einführung in die neuere kroatische dramatische Literatur", *Die Brücke* 51-53, Zagreb 1977, p. 5-25, esp. p. 16 et seq.; M. Matković, *Dva eseja iz Invatske dramaturgije. Marginalia na Krležino dramsko* stvaranje, Zagreb 1950; M. Bogdanović, *O Krleža*, Beograd 1956, p. 39 et seq.; M. Bogdanović, *Miroslav Krleža*, Zagreb 1963, p. 93 et seq.; Krležn Zbonik, Zagreb 1964 (here is the director Branko Gavella's important article about "Krleža on stage", p. 326-333). comedies are prelude to the theatre of the absurd (*Capul de raţoi*, *Omul cu mîŋoaga* 1927, Berlogea 1874: 350). Bulgarian Modernism starts with the psychological Impressionist drama *At the Foot of Vitoša* (1911) by Pejo Javorov (*V polite na Vitoša*, Najdenova-Stoilova 1962, Zarev 1967: 98-181). In Greece it starts with Kambyssis's fairy plays and the "theatre of ideas" by Grigorios Xenopoulos, Demetrios Tangopoulos, Pantelis Horn, Spyros Melas, Nikos Kazantzakis and others (on Horn see Bαφειάδη 1993: 27-164). In the works of these writers one can detect the impact of Ibsen, Sudermann, Hauptmann and Strindberg (Πούχνερ 1997: 311-354, specifically on Kazantzakis Πούχνερ 1995: 318-434). In the mid-War period, realistic and provincial comedies, together with historical drama, predominate again. Only in Margarita Lymberaki's and Dimitris Hatzis's plays can one detect Expressionist features. In Turkey, the performance of the *Owl (Baykuş* 1917) written by Halit Fahri Ozansoy and directed by Muhsin Ertugrul, marks the invasion of Modernism (Spuler 1968: 167 et seq.). The first plays by Nazum Hikmet are influenced by Russian Expressionism (Spuler 1968: 124-141). However, his parabolic and politically committed plays, which he wrote mostly in exile, cannot represent Turkish drama (see mid-War performance records by Spuler 1968: 196-205).

The beginnings of Modernism in the history of the theatre in South-East Europe are some kind of measure of the level of centripetal tendencies of theatrical developments in the 20th century. It is a procedure which confines typological comparison within the borders, language, religion and culture of the Balkan countries. In Croatia and Romania, the typological range of dramatic forms moves from Expressionism to the theatre of the absurd. In Hungary, Modernism starts with a series of "marketable" naturalistic plays, very successful abroad. In Bulgaria, the theatre at first moves along the lines of Socialist Realism. In Greece, Historism and Realism still sway (only after the Second World War are there essential turning-points in the development, Πούχνεο 1988: 419-433). In Turkey, the acceptance of Modernism remains occasional. There is, of course, a series of political and historical events interrupting the continual development of cultural affairs: the Young Turks' revolution, the Balkan Wars, the First World War, resulting in the exchange of populations in the Balkan peninsula, the Asia Minor Campaign, resulting in the exodus of the Greeks from Asia Minor, the impact of fascist and communist regimes in South-East Europe, the Second World War, the Resistance and civil war. All these hindered the new beginning of cultural life until the 1950's. Afterwards it was defined by the Cold War and the Iron Curtain, which divided the Balkans into two parts, separating Hungarians, Romanians and Bulgarians from Greeks and Turks, while the Yugoslav countries occupied an intermediate position. For the time being, it is not feasible for anyone to write the theatrical history of the Balkans of the second half of the 20th century. It still remains a desideratum for future historians of the theatre and of the comparison of cultures to spot possible common elements in the developments in the Balkan peninsula up to the dissociation of South-East Europe from the clout of the two great Powers, in the fin de siècle and the fin de millénaire, in order to present them by a similar synthetic and comparative method.

Theatre and City in the Balkans: A typology

The theatrical developments in South-East Europe are closely connected with the existence of a sophisticated urban culture. Theatrical life is one of the most important manifestations of this civilisation, after the regeneration phase. A differentiation should be made as to the specific ideological functions of the repertory and the theatre building in the various times and places. As to the time periods, we have to distinguish between the phase before regeneration and the creation of an independent and autonomous nation and the phase of independence. The repertory-prestige of the ruling (foreign) culture becomes the repertory-prestige of the national culture. As to the regions, we have to distinguish 1) the regions of Venetian occupation, where spectacles and feasts like "giostra" (tournament) were directly sponsored by the Serenest Republic itself (Kretzenbacher 1977, 1968, 1966, Puchner 1979b, 1998, IIoúχνεϱ 1994b, 1998), 2) the regions of former Ottoman Empire, in which, after the winning of national independence, in neo-Classical theatre buildings, a repertory orientated towards Western standards appeared, usually of Italian or French origin, competing the amateur troupes which as a rule cultivated the local national drama (Athens, Bucharest, Jasy, Constantinople), and 3) the regions in the power of Habsburg Monarchy, in which German-speaking companies and German repertories were gradually restricted to the old permanent theatre buildings. In special cases however, there are remarkable overlappings, exceptions and mixtures of these theatrical functions, which can be methodically standardised.

It is a self-evident fact of theatre history that the fashioning of a repertory, that is, which writers are staged and in what way (Kindermann 1955) and the construction of the building, that is the sort of achitecture, the part of the city it is situated in, etc.⁴⁰, are important manifestations of the social forces influencing the urban culture of the city in its broader sense (for Greece, $\Phi \varepsilon \sigma \alpha' \in E \mu \mu \alpha v \circ m' \lambda$ 1994). Taking into consideration the relatively late appearance of theatrical life in large parts of South-East Europe, court and nobility festive representation is not especially evident (actually it is restricted to Hungary, Staud 1977). It is overlapped almost from the beginning by urban education and teaching in the framework of the Enlightenment and even earlier. (The Phanariot Bucharest court is a typical example). The picture of South-Eastern European cities is also marked by the spectacles of popular theatre, the panorama-players and the puppeteers (Belitska-Scholz 1975), from the Carpathians to Saronic Gulf. In the cities of Muslim culture, there is also the shadow-puppet theatre (Πού-χνερ 1985, Puchner 1997).

In the Venetian Mediterranean dominions from the 16th to the 18th century, no court theatre can be detected. The chivalric events, the tournaments and the nailing of the ring (correr all' anello) (Puchner 1979, 1998) concerned only the noble families, those recorded in the "libri d' oro" (Lunzi 1858: 483 et seq.). The amateur companies which staged Marin Držić's comedies and pastorals in Renaissance Ragusa (Rešetar 1922: 100) consisted of young members of the "good" families of the city, that is, of the "nobili" and "cittadini" (Francev 1931: 10 et seq.). Only the baroque performances, organised by the Jesuit fathers, in which Junije Palmotić's mythological

⁴⁰ P. Pougnaud, Théâtres. 4 siècles d' architecture et d' histoire, Paris 1980; W. Unruh, "Theaterbau und Bühnentechnik", M. Hürlimann (ed.), Das Atlantisbuch des Theaters, Zürich 1966, p. 114-122; V. Glasstone, Victorian and Edwardian theatres, London 1975; A. Behr/A. Hoffmann, Das Schauspielhaus in Berlin, Berlin 1984; H.Chr. Hoffmann, Die Theaterbauten von Fellner und Helmer, München 1966, etc.

⁴¹N. Beritić, "Iz povijesti kazališne i muzičke umjemosti u Dubrovniku", *Anali Historijkog instituta JAZU u Dubrovniku* 1953, p. 329-356, esp. p. 330. The stage demands seem to have increased essentially during the 17th century in Ragusa, compared to Držić's time (W. Cole, "Scenografija u doba Marina Držića", Forum 9-10, Zagreb 1967, p. 582-597; Dr. Pavlović, "Melodrama i počeci opere u staro Dubrovnik", Zbornik Filozofkog fakulteta II, Beograd 1962, p. 243-254). This has been made evident by the extant contracts with the Italian stage-designers (M. Pantić, "Arhivske vesti o dubrovačkom pozorištu u doba Gundulića i Palmotića", *Pitanja Književnosti i jezika* 4, Sarajevo 1958, p. 65-75).

plays were staged, seem to have a more exclusive character41. This cannot be said about the Jesuit performances on the islands of the Aegean Sea (Puchner 1999), in which the actors were offsprings of the Latin ruling noble families (Παναγιωτάχης/Πούχνεο 1999), but the stage facilities were very restricted. The performances of religious plays, possibly following the medieval didactic-pastoral tradition, were always more open to the low classes (this is implied by the sources coming from the Dalmatian coast and the Croatian hinterland, Perillo 1975, Batušić 1978: 1-25, Kumbatovič 1959, Kindermann 1959: 385 et seq., 421 et seq., 1967: 609 et seq., 657 et seq.). The theatre building in the shipyard of Lesina island (today called Hyar) is considered the first permanent theatre building in the Balkans and one of the first in the Mediterranean. It was transformed into a theatre by Pietro Semitecolo with the performance hall on the first floor in 1612⁴². This theatre played the repertory of the early Croatian drama⁴³, not yet serving the national ideology prestige. It was a typical stage of the upper class, connected with the ruling class culture, according to the ideology of the Italian-type Western feudal social scale, which had been assimilated by the lower classes as well. Something of the sort can be seen in Crete (Παναγιωτάχης 1988, 1990, 1990b). Here they staged tragedies and pastoral comedies in the literary academies, perhaps in the loggia or in the ruler's palace, certainly in the houses of "nobili", whereas the comedies were performed publicly in the squares (Puchner 1983β, Παναγιωτάκης 1998). On the occasion of a noble wedding evidence has been found for the performance of an Italian comedy in a house (Antonio Pandimo's L'amorosa fede, 26 September 1618 in Chania, Σάθας 1879 μ' et seq., Αποσχίτη 1991). A real theatrical stage was constructed for the first time by transforming the loggia in Corfu into a theatre building (1720), functioning as San Giacomo Theatre from 1733 and becoming the centre of cultivation of the Italian opera on the Ionian Islands, especially during the last decades of the 18th century (Βροκίνης 1901, Μαυρομούστακος 1995). In this case too, one cannot speak of a court but rather of a municipal theatre (on its management see also Καπάδογος 1991). In the theatrical life of Corfu, Cefalonia and Zante the "cittadini" participated substantively. The melodies and arias of the Italian opera performances, organised by a specifically employed impressario (Ντεμπόνος 1979: 260 et seq.) were whistled by the people in the street.

There is evidence for a similarly mixed social representation and impact in the function of the theatre in Slovenia, the Dalmatian coast in the 18th century and the Croatian hinterland in the 19th century (Puchner 1994: 23 et seq.). Only in the palaces of the Hungarian landowners, away from centres and courts, there was a court-like theatre (Horányi 1959, 1967), which still existed until the middle of the 19th century (Staud 1977). The court theatre of the Serb prince Miloš Obrenović in Kragujevac 1834-36 ("Knjaževski srpski teatar") was of very short duration. It played German and Hungarian dramas of the Trivialliteratur in Serbian adaptations (Popović 1899). The theatrical life in the Phanariot courts of Jasy and Bucharest show a complicated picture as well: in the courts of Michael Soutsos and Ioannis Karatzas (Caragea) there was a shadow-puppet theatre and improvised comedies by Armenian sergeants, rope-walkers, conjurors, clowns and wizards, Italian monkey-trainers, German weight-lifters and Turkish

⁴² This hall is described in a Latin poem by Antun Matijašević Kamaraneo (see G. Novak, "Naše najstarije kazalište", *Scena* [Zagreb] 1950, p. 99 et seq.). Photo in Kindermann 1959: 422.

⁴⁹ Hanibal Lucić's *Robinja* was performed in 1530 at a square next to the church of the island or perhaps in a private house (Batušić 1978: 42 et seq.). "F.A. Costa, "Spectacole de divertisment la curtile domnești și boierești in epoca feudală", Studii și cercetări ist. artei 5 (1958) 2, p. 137-333; K. Berlogea, "Manifestations théâtral à la court voivodale et et moldave au Moyen Age", Revue roumaine d' histoire del'art. Série théâtre, musique, cinéma 19 (1982), p. 29-35; A.M. Popescu, "Începuturile teatrului cult în Tara Rominească", fire-walkers, displaying their skills in the court and the houses of the Boyars⁴⁴. On the theatre stage, however, the Italian opera troupes held sway, together with German and French companies⁴⁵. There is evidence of an Italian pantomime company, a Polish itinerant company, a panorama with city pictures, battles, coronations, etc.⁴⁶. This international variety of theatrical life acquired a "national" tone only when Rallou Karatzas, the prince's daughter, took on the organisation of school performances, in 1817. The amateur company, Theodoros Alkeos and Konstantinos Kyriakos Aristias (Costache Aristia in the Romanian language, as he became later one of the founders of the Romanian national theatre) among its members, performed scenes from ancient Greek tragedies. Voltaire's Brutus and Alfieri's Orestes. In the Red Fountain (Cismeaua rosie) the students found an "elegantā sala di spectacole"47, J. Vācārescu directed the theatre and promoted the Greek amateurs: Aristias was sent to Paris to study with the great actor of the French Revolution J. Talma high rhetorical style and tragic acting. In 1818, Rallou brought to Bucharest the Viennese Gerger company in order to provide her amateurs with a standard of high aesthetic specifications (inter alia, they played Mozart, Schiller, Rossini and Alfieri)⁴⁸. In November of 1818 the princely family had to flee the country in order to escape the revenge of the Sublime Porte. The theatre had already become a national (even revolutionary) stage (Σιδέρης 1971, Puchner 1975), under the influence of the teachers of the Greek "academy", most of whom were members of "Philiki Eteria" (Σιδέοης 1971, Camariano-Cioran 1974).

This overlapping of functions took place especially in urban areas during the late Enlightenment era. The aristocratic theatre (in Hungary) and the popular theatre with the improvised shows long retained their international character, orientated as they were to the German and Italian comic tradition (on Hungary, Belitska-Scholtz 1975 and Belitska-Scholtz/Somorjai 1988). In the urban culture of the regeneration cities at the time of the growth of nationalism, this double nature of the theatre, that is, the popular commercial one of international origin and the urban national one with educational objective, appears in various manifestations and mixtures and each case can be analysed only separately. The popular and

Studii și cercetări ist. artei 5 (1958), p. 41-57.

⁴⁵ In 1784, in the court of Bucharest, they performed an Italian comedy (N. lorga, *Istoria literaturii române în secolul al XVIII-lea*, Bucureşti 1901, vol. 2, p. 27). In 1792 some Austrian actors were denied licence to perform (N. lorga, "Alte lâmuriri despre veacul al XVIII-lea dupa izvoare apuşene", *Analele Acad. Rom., Mem. Sect. Ist.* Ile Seria, t. XXXIII (1911), p. 153 et seq., esp. p. 194.). In 29 May 1798 a princely order is issued for the mayors of Vlachia, to support and protect the French tragedians and wrestlers (Ollanescu 1899: 4 et seq.).

⁴⁶ This results from the letters of the Russian General Kutusov, published in *Revue de Paris* in April 1835 (Camariano 1943: 382 et seq.). On the pianist Roberg's concerts, from Saint Petrograd, see Ελληνικός Τηλέγραφος 1, Vienna, 1812, p. 89. On Mathias Brody's panoramas, see Ollanescu 1899: 30.

⁴⁷M. Florea, *Scurța istorie a teatrului românesc*, București 1970, p. 17 et seq. In 1818, they expanded the performing hall (I. Aneştin, Schiţā pentru istoria teatrului romînesc, Bucureşti 1938, p. 13 et seq.). For a description of the auditorium see Ollanescu 1899: 34 et seq., and H. Φιλήμων, Δοχίμιον ιστορικόν περί της Φιλικής Εταιρείας, Ναύπλιον 1834, p. 200 et seq.

^a We are rather quite well informed on the activity of this troupe, as there are sufficient first-hand sources: Φιλήμων, ibid. p 167 et seq., Αλεξανδρος Ρίζος Ραγκαβής, *Απομνημονεύματα*, 4 vol., Αθήναι 1893-1930, vol. I, p. 80, F. Recordon, *Lettres sur la Valachie ou observations sur cette province et ses habitants écrites de 1815 à 1821…* Paris 1821, p. 91, K. Καφακάσης, *Τοπογραφία της Βλα-*χίαζ… Bucureşti 1830, p. 19, F.G. Laurençon, *Nouvelles* observations sur la Valachie, sur ses productions, son commere, les mœurs et coutumes des habitants et sur son government, Paris 1822, p. 36, W. Wilkinson, *An account* of the principalities of Walachia and Moldavia, London 1820, p. 140 et seq. commercial theatre may have intense local features, as in the case of the Slovenian farmer and dramatist Drabosnjak⁴⁹ or the Hungarian commercial plays with the enthralling gipsy music about the electoral rigging and social inequality of the years before 1848. It is the same with the Croatian plays of "homeland" of the mid-War years or the Greek Karagöz during its heyday. On the other hand, the bourgeois and the intellectuals were pleased by the declamatory acting style of the French itinerant troupes and the enchanting singing of mediocre Italian prima-donnas. though they were conscious of their patriotic duties and believed in the moralistic and educational mission of the theatre. These tours of the companies in the countries of the two-headed eagle took place because of the network of theatres in the cities of the Monarchy and the Germanspeaking theatres, which cultivated the Italian, German and local opera and operetta (Puchner 1994: 23 et seq.) in a somewhat different way from the half-moon countries, especially in Romania (Rādulescu 1965), in Greece (Μπακουνάκης 1991) and Constantinople itself (And 1971, 1972, 1973, Σταματοπούλου-Βασιλάχου 1994/96). In those countries, French prose and Italian melodrama troupes (Armenian in Turkey) competed with the local amateur companies for the public's favour. There were controversial confrontations in the Press about the role of the theatre in society (Σταματοπούλου-Βασιλάχου 1994/96: I 75 et seq.), because governments usually subsidised foreign troupes at the expense of the evolution of the local national theatre (on Athens under Bavarian rule, see Γεωργακάκη 1998). Serbs, because of their late entry into the history of South-East European theatre (and partly because of the emphasis on the repertory of Illyricism⁵⁰), and the Bulgarians to some degree (Despotowa 1974, Greisenegger 1966), have remained outside this speculation. In Turkey the whole situation was different, because of the different religion and the narrow-minded intellectual climate under Abdül Hamit II's regime (Horn 1902: 29). There were similar ideological conflicts about the role and function of the theatre in theatrically decentralised Hungary⁵¹, and in Croatia during the Illyricist movement of 1840 (Stančić 1985: 107-131). In Slovenia the debate was pursued only slowly and tentatively⁵²; because of the strict censorship, police surveillance and secret reports (Dietrich 1967) as well as the domination of the Imperial authorities, in more indirect and reserved ways than in the East and the South of the Balkans. The existence of the German theatres in the countries of Austria-Hungary monarchy coincided with the symbolic function of the expression of the two-headed eagle's power, that is, the self-presentation of the consciousness of supremacy and the festive presentation of the sovereign culture (Mályusz-Császár 1968). Public contests

⁶⁹ Andrej Šuster Drabosnjak (1768-1825). His plays have often religious subjects, but they are also critical and satirical towards the feudal lords. On this writer see J. Weilen, *Die Theater Wiens*, vol. 1, Wien 1899, p. 137 et seq.

⁵⁶ This concerns the amateur troupe of Novi Sad, which performed in Zagreb in 1840 and was invited to Belgrade in 1842. Its repertory contained 52 plays in all (Breyer 1938: 129).

⁵¹ The degree of this decentralisation can be estimated judging by the theatre buildings: in 1769 in Ödenburg/Sopron, in 1774 the Rondelle-Theater in Peste, in 1776 in Preßburg/Bratislava, in 1796 in Temeschwar, in 1897 in Raab/Györ, etc. (Pukánsky-Kádár 1933, p. 111 et seq.). There were theatre companies also in Debrecen, Großwardein and Koloszvar/Klausenburg. In Voivodina Serbian, Hungarian and German itinerant troupes crossed paths in their itineraries throughout the country (A. Ujes, "Das Publikum der wandernden Schauspieler in der Vojvodina im 19. Jahrhundert", *Das Theater und sein Publikum*, Wien 1977, p. 206-218).

⁵² On the theatrical evenings and recitations of the Slovenian Reading Society "Narodna Čitalnica" 1861-1867, see F.K. Kumbatovič, "Spiel im Spiel. Erinnerungsversuch von Aufführungen der slowenischen Lesevereine", Maske und Kothum 16 (1970), p. 72-84. Also N. Gostiševa et al. (eds.), Repertoar slovenskih gledališč 1768-1967, Ljubljana 1967. and directed spectacles had a similar function in the Mediterranean Venetian dominions, as well as the French performances in Levant in the Sun-King-era: in Smyrna, Corneille's *Nicomède* was performed in the French embassy, only six years after its première in Paris (Πούχνεο 1995α: 325 et seq.), and in the French embassy in Constantinople Molière's comedies were performed in 1673 (Galland 1881: 5-31, Ταμπάχη 1988: 29 et seq.).

The symbolic expression of the function of cultural dominance of the national theatre is not only the repertory in the national language for the above mentioned cultivation of the national myth and criticism aimed at correcting contemporary social conditions. It is also the theatre building, which must have a representative architectural construction and a central position in the city (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994). Taken into account in the construction are much less the practical, technological-scenical or audience aspects, than the symbolic representation of the community in the first stage of the country. This usually led to an emphasis on arabesques and decorations of the auditorium and the boxes, as was common in the theatre buildings of the "Italian" type during the 19th century (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 111-141). A good example is the huge German theatre of Peste, which was inaugurated in 1812 with Kotzebue's allegorical play The Ruins of Athens, set to music by Ludwig van Beethoven⁵³. Ofen and Peste had four German and Hungarian theatres at the same time then (Mályusz-Császár 1968). However, the distance from the itinerant troupes and their provisional stages to the representative building of the national theatre is a long one. It leads first into the rented halls and the adapted buildings originally destined for other purposes. In Zagreb, the first theatre in Markov trg opened in 183454. Previously they performed in Baron Kulmer's palais. In Belgrade they used the customhouse as a theatre in 184255. In 1861, Novi Sad acquired its own permanent theatre, etc.56

Especially striking are the difficulties encountered establishing and erecting the national theatre, with its representative building, in the case of Greece. Athens was the last European capital designed and built anew⁵⁷. The neo-Classical plan of the city by Leo von Klenze and his successors, aimed at the symbolic union of the ancient with the new city, archaeology with contemporary life, ancient and modern Greece, allowed for a theatrical building, as was proper

⁵³ It existed from 1812 up to 1847. Before the staging of *Ruinen von Athen*, they characteristically produced Kotzebue's play *König Stefan*, Ungarns erster Wohlthäter, set also into music by Beethoven (K.M. Kertbeny, "Zur Theatergeschichte von Budapest", Ungarische Revue 1881, p. 636 et seq., 945 et seq., 1882, p. 404 et seq., and esp. 853 et seq.).

stThe inauguration ceremony was made with the patriotic drama *Niklas Graf von Zriny*, by Theodor Körner, still in the German language, but with a theme from the Croatian history. On this performance, Batušić 1978: 222 et seq.

⁵⁵ "Pozorište na Čumruku" (Kindermann 1965: 402 et seq.). See also M. Grol, *Iz pozorišta predratne Srbije*, Beograd 1952.

⁵⁶On its repertory see S.K. Kostić, "Deutschsprachige Dramatiker auf der Bühne des Serbischen Nationaltheaters in Novi Sad", *Maske und Kothurn* 8 (1962), p. 247-282; by the same author "Österreichische Dramatiker auf der Bühne des serbischen Nationaltheaters in Novi Sad", ibid. 12 (1966), p. 196-202; by the same author "Nemački klasici na sceni Srpskog narodnog pozorišta u Novom Sadu", Spomenica 1861-1961, Novi Sad 1961, p. 198-228; N. Gavrilović, "Francuski repertoar Srpskog narodnog pozorišta u Novom Sadu 1861-1961", ibid. p. 161-197. See also P. Marjanović, Umetnički razvoj Srpskog narodnog pozorišta 1861-1868. Novi Sad 1974.

⁵⁷After Helsingfors (1812) and Christiana (1814, today's Oslo). See now A. Papageorgiou-Venetas, *Athen. Ein Stadtgedanke des Klassizismus*, München, Berlin 1994.

³⁸ According to Christian Hansen's plans (I. Haugsted, "The Architect Christian Hansen and Greek Neoclassicism", *Scandinavian Studies in Modern Greek* 4 (1980), p. 71-81). This plan can be found in Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 275, pic. 381. In Kleanthis' and Schaubert's for a European court⁵⁸. One year after the assumption of the government by the Bavarians, the existing foundations of this building changed place, because a large section of public opinion held that there were more important and urgent things to be done in the newly established nation $(\Sigma\pi\alpha\theta_{15})$ (216 et seq.). The Regency made efforts, as early as 1834, to build a theatre, even if a wooden one, for the Italian opera and to appoint an impresario to organise performances (Hering 1994: 268 et seq.). These plans came to nothing. In the new capital of the miniature state, court life mixed closely with the urban life, even with country life59, therefore it was impossible to separate the court from the municipal theatre (on the repertory, $\Sigma \pi \alpha \theta \eta \zeta$ 1986: 219 et seq. and Πούχνεο 1995a: 311-324). The first known theatres are those of Athanassios Skontzopoulos⁶⁰ and Gaetano Meli (a wooden booth) in 1836/37. The latter was the first to bring an Italian troupe from Zakynthos to Athens. These buildings were sordid, without a roof and with bare soil for a floor, but they had a royal box⁶¹. The remarkable amateur troupe of 1836 and 1837 had to share the building, and even the public, with touring rope-dancers ($\Sigma\pi\alpha\theta\eta\varsigma$ 1986: 219 et seq., 232 et seq., 238 et seq., Πούχνερ 1995a: 311-324)62. The Italian opera had a triumphant success in these early years (Τσαουσόπουλος 1923, Nordenflycht 1845). The grandeur of the appearance of the Bavarian court and the foreign diplomats was hardly responsible for the enthusiastic reactions of the audiences: the rural population of the city saw for the first time in its life a real performance of Italian opera. In the era of Bavarian rule (1833-1862) the Ottoman phallic Karagöz was still performed in the coffee houses (Puchner

city plans the theatre building was scheduled to be built in the same place on Klathmonos Square (K. Μπίρης, Τα πρώτα θέατρα των Αθηνών, Αθήνα 1933, p. 10 et seq., 20 et seq.). On Hansen's neo-Classical buildings in Athens see also I. Haugsted, "Ο αρχιτέκτων Χριστιανός Χάνσεν και η Αθήνα", Σύγχρονα Θέματα 9 (1980), p. 43-46. 59 An interesting source about everyday life in the court and the city is Christiana Lüth's humoristic diary. She was the Dane wife of the German minister of the court, A.H.F. Lüth, who lived in Athens from 1839 to 1852. See Chr. Lüth, Memoirer of Breve - XLVIII - Frau Fredensborg til Athen, Kopenhagen 1929 (and 1974); by the same author, Breve fra Graekenland, Smyrna, Phokaea, Mytilene, Chios, Tschesmé, Ephesus og Patmos 1846. Ed. V. X.J. Schultz, Kopenhagen 1884; in Greek Μια Δανέζα στην αυλή του Όθωνα, Αθήνα 1981 and Στην Αθήνα του 1847-1848. Ένα ανέκδοτο ημερολόγιο, Αθήνα 1991.

⁶⁰"Some actors and actresses have arrived from Zante and they have constructed a wooden theatre, without covering, on a spot marked out for a square... The actors were, a man, his wife, and their two children; and the performances were merely those of a strolling company of the most limited class" (G. Cochrane, Wanderings in Greece, 2 vol. London 1837, vol. A', p. 202 et seq.).

⁶¹The hall had very poor acoustics. Descriptions see in Cochrane ("The interior of the theatre is prettily fitted up. It contains about sixty boxes, and the King's box is in the centre; and the pit is large enough to contain one thousand people"), ibid. vol. 2, p. 103; Σπάθης 1986: 232 et seq.; also Fürst Pückler-Muskau, Südöstlicher Bildersaal, vol. 3: Griechische Leiden. Zweiter Theil, Stuttgart 1840, p. 67 et seq. and K. Schönwälder, Erinnerungen an Griechenland, Breig 1838, p. 59 et seq. (in Greek translation Bénç 1938: 1590 et seq.).

⁶² Cochrane watched such an acrobatic show in 5 (17) April 1836: "The performance this evening was rope dancing, which was very well executed, with tumbling of all kinds, after the manner of our Astley's: with this difference, however, that the feats of agility were executed by the female, the daughter of the Entrepreneur" (Cochrane, ibid. vol. II, p. 103). There is another description: "Heute stellt die Gesellschaft der Seiltänzer verschiedene neue Stücke vor, und sie hofft, daß die edelgesinnten Einwohner dieser Stadt mit ihrer gewohnten Freigebigkeit ihre geringen Gaben belohnen werden. Um 4 Uhr fängt man an, sich zu versammeln, und um 5 Uhr zu spielen. Athen, den 8then April 1836. Vorstellungen: Tanz auf dem gespannten Seile, Pyramidalische Puppenspiele, Pyramiden, ein großer schwerer Sprung einer papiernen Puppe, verschiedene Kunststücke auf dem schlaffen Seil und eine mimische Vorstellung, genannt: die drei belebten Fässer" (C.O.I. von Armin, Flüchtige Bemerkungen eines Flüchtig-Reisenden, Berlin 1837, p. 48 et seq.).

1975: 61 et seq., Πούχνεϱ 1985: 30 et seq.). At court balls or on the King's birthday, "tableaux vivants" and pantomimes were performed (in 1837 they played Evanthia Kairi's *Nikiratos*, Πούχνεϱ 1995a: 332 et seq.). Otto I was sceptical about Greek amateur performances, as he had diagnosed in them the expression of suppressed nationalism (Δημαφάς 1982a), which eventually coerced him into accepting constitutional monarchy. The voices against Italian opera (and the Karagöz "Oriental Theatre" as well) became loud during the 19th century (Πούχνεϱ 1992: 359 et seq.). The Italian troupes came only occasionally and they were of less than average quality (Nordenflycht 1845: 285 et seq., 269, 297 et. seq., 305). Athens cannot be compared in this phase with Corfu or Zante, Patra or Ermoupolis as far as Italian opera is concerned (Καπάδοχος 1991, Μπαχουνάχης 1991). The first stone-built theatre, called "Boukoura" was built in 1840. Almost only foreign troupes played in it (Φεσσά-Εμμανουή). 1994: 287-280). Grigorios Kambouroglou's plan of 1856 for erecting a national theatre failed completely⁶⁵. The "Dimotikon" (municipal) theatre was built in 1888 (to Ernst Ziller's designs). The "Vassilikon" (royal) theatre, designed by the same architect, started functioning in 1901 as a national theatre (Φεσσά-Εμμανουή). 1994: 280-302 and 302-317).

In this way, Greece was one of the last Balkan countries to acquire a representative building for a national theatre. This delay reflects, of course, the troubled relation with the royal house and Bavarian rule in general, as other cities erected municipal theatres as expressions of representation of the prosperous commercial bourgeoisie (Μπακουνάκης 1991: 42 et seq., 111 et seq..) (on the Ionian Islands of the aristocracy too) much earlier: 1720/33 the San Giacomo Theatre in Corfu (extensions 1815, 1831 and 1888; since 1903 it has been the Town Hall, Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 152 et seq.), 1805 Spyridon Berettas' theatre in Cefalonia (Ευαγγελάτος 1973), in 1836 the wooden "Apollon" theatre in Zante and the first wooden theatre in Ermoupolis (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 179 et seq., 207 et seq.), in 1838 Alexandros Solomos' theatre in Cefalonia⁶⁴ and in 1857 the "Kefalos" theatre on the same island (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 194-199), in 1863/64 the municipal theatre "Apollon" in Ermoupolis, Syros⁶⁵, in 1871/72 the municipal theatre of Piraeus, in 1875 the "Foskolos" theatre in Zakynthos (the two last buildings were designed by Ziller, Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 181-186). In the same period, the prosperous Greeks of Constantinople had more than one stage (Σταματοπούλου-Βασιλάχου 1994/96: Α' 363-389). The erection of "Dimotikon" theatre in Athens started in 1872 (it was finished in 1888, designed by Ziller, pulled down in 1940); in 1882 the municipal theatre of Piraeus (designed by Ioannis Lazarimos, Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: 322-345); in 1893 the municipal theatre in

⁶⁹The subsidies Queen Amalia demanded were rejected by the Parliament; Kambouroglou himself went bankrupt (Δ. Καμπούρογλου, Απομνημονεύματα μιας μαχράς ζωής, ανατάπουη Αθήνα 1985, p. 321ff.; Hering 1994; p. 270 et seq.). The architectural designs of the French Fr. Boulanger have survived (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994; p. 274 et seq., p. 413, note 1192, together with unpublished material from Otto's archives). See also N. Λάσχαφη, "Διατά δεν ιδούθη το Εθνικόν Θέατφον επί Όθωνος", Παναθήναια, 15.4.1904, p. 39-46.

⁶⁴ It is really a mansion transformed into a theatre; it functioned from 1838 until 1849 (Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: p. 192 et seq.). See also Α.-Δ. Ντεμπόνος, "Στοιχεία για τη θεατοική στέγη στην Κεφαλονιά", Κεφαλ ληνιακά Χρονικά 2 (1977), p. 111-119 and Ευαγγελάτος 1970: 168-174.

⁶⁶ Built according to the Italian architect P. Sampo's designs, it still exists today. See Μπακουνάκης 1991: 28 et seq., I. Τραυλού/Α. Κόκκου, Ερμούπολις, Αθήνα 1980, p. 126-128, Λάσκαφης 1938/39: 129-150, Α.Θ. Αρακάκης, "Το ξεκίνημα του νεοελληνικού θεάτρου (Ερμούπολις-Σύφα 1826-1861), Δελτίον της Ιστορικής και Εθνολογικής Εταιρείας της Ελλάδος 22 (1979), p. 23-81 and especially 70-77. Containing the whole relative material Φεσσά-Εμμανουήλ 1994: p. 208-217.

Corfu (in 1895 the "Phoenix" theatre still existing today); in 1894/96 the municipal theatre of Volos was inaugurated (still existing until 1960, $\Phi e \sigma \sigma \alpha' - E \mu \mu \alpha v \circ v \eta \lambda$ 1994: 161 et seq., 170 et seq., 233 et seq.), and in 1901 the "Vassilikon" was built (Ziller's designs, $\Phi e \sigma \sigma \alpha' - E \mu \mu \alpha v \circ v \eta \lambda$ 1994: 302-317). Greek theatre architecture at that time followed Central European models, chiefly Hellmer's and Fellner's neo-Classical type (Hoffmann 1966). However, the greatest part of theatrical life took place in the makeshift yards of the summer theatres on the banks of the Ilissos river or in Neon Faliron ($\Phi e \sigma \sigma \alpha' - E \mu \mu \alpha v \circ v \eta \lambda$ 1994: 245-273 and 348-350). Here, they applied an improvised but local "architecture", contrasting with the prestigious stages, which imitated the foreign "Italian type" architecture. Those buildings were really designed for the Italian opera, which competed during the second half of the 19th century with the French opera and finally with the Greek (Xαμουδόπουλος 1980). Music and singing played an important part in the prose theatre too, from 1870 onwards (Xατζηπανταζής 1981).

The need of the bourgeois merchants for festive representation immediately after liberation was expressed in the wish for regular opera performances (Μπαχουνάχης 1991, Στιβανάχη 1997). For this purpose, enormous sums for the time were spent in Ermoupolis and Patra. The leaders of city financial life took part in the committees for the theatre. They signed a contract with an elected (by them) impresario, who had to be responsible for the next season's performances. He travelled for this purpose especially to Italy and visited the great opera agencies to form a troupe of singers and musicians. He was responsible and answerable for the quantity and quality of the repertory, for the musical execution and he had to give an itemised account of the total of expenses. Because of the frequency of the performances in Corfu, Syros and Patra, it was a demanding task and involved large sums of money (Μπακουνάκης 1991: 133 et seq., 141 et seq., 153 et. seq.). Compared to them, Athens was a theatrical province. Constantinople in particular during the second half of the 19th century, and even later, surpassed Greece. Other cities with Greeks living abroad, that is, Alexandria (Καομάτζος 1974), Cairo, Smyrna (Σολομωνίδης 1954), Odessa, Jasy and Bucharest (Οικονομίδης 1950, 1954) were important stops on the tours of the itinerant troupes, securing their survival, as the box-office in Athens could not provide sufficiently for them. Only when the "Vassilikon" theatre and its contemporaneous "Nea Skini" (New Stage) of Constantinos Christomanos (Σιδέσης 1990, Μαυρίκου-Αναγνώστου 1964, Πούχνεο 1997a) started functioning, did they bring out representative repertories, approaching the objectives of a national theatre. They combined Classic and modern writers, Greek and foreign plays. The more intellectual theatre of Christomanos started with Alcestis, in his own translation. The court theatre "Vassilikon" staged Oresteia in 1903 (in an one-night adaptation, following Reinhardt's model, Flashar 1991: 114-123), in a translation which led to the so-called "Oresteiaka" (events caused by Oresteia). This was a demonstration organised by some fanatical students who saw in this translation sacrilege against the dignity of the ancient theatre. In the same year, Georgios Mistriotis, a university teacher of Classics at the University of Athens, organised theatrical productions in the ancient Greek language (Σιδέρης 1976). On the one hand there was the linguistic problem (Hering 1987, Maotooonuntons 1990: 43-60), and on the other there were the audiences' tastes (Πούχνεο 1995b: 193 et seq., 137 et seq.) pressing hard for a change in the repertory policy. Christomanos, working without subsidies, more and more had to produce boulevard plays, even with his own piquant additions (Πούγγεο 1997: 131-182), while he rejected the only substantive national drama of the time, Palamas' Trisevgeni (Noblest) (1903) because he thought it unsuitable to theatrical routine and the expectation horizon of the public. Palamas refused to adapt his Symbolist play about the magic of beauty to the spirit of a sentimental melodrama, according to the playwrighting recipes of the day (Πούχνερ 1995b: 408-468). Christomanos held out until 1905. Thomas Ikonomou left the "Vassilikon" in 1906, and it was soon disbanded ($\Sigma\pi \alpha \theta \eta_{\varsigma}$ 1983: 29 et seq., 34 et seq.). Only in 1932 was the "National Theatre" inaugurated in the same building, with Fotos Politis in charge. This time it was an institution which could really claim that it was fulfilling its national mission in the conditions of the 20th century.

By the beginning of the 20th century, the function of national theatres and drama gradually abandoned ideologically charged content and spectacle and shifted towards a theatrical aesthetics less committed literarily. It also moved towards a greater willingness for stylistic experiments. The smaller theatres, built more or less away from the city centre, added gradually their decisive contribution to future developments, which put the central theatres in a more conservative role. As in the rest of Europe, the Balkan national theatres have opened secondary or experimental stages, in order to keep up with the often startling progress of the avant-garde. The present and future of the theatre is really cultivated on those smaller stages. The abrupt and often uncontrollable development of the cities, together with the industrialisation of the country and the urbanisation of the whole of society have led theatre to decentralisation, expressed at two levels: 1) in creating a whole network of provincial theatres in towns and villages, supported by amateur companies, schools and cultural associations; the early examples of this phenomenon were Hungary and the Croatian hinterland (Batušić 1978: 299 et seq., 430 et seq.); in Greece these developments are noticable after 1880 (Πούγνεο 1992: 331-371); 2) in creating a multitude of suburb stages at which the lower classes sought recreation during the 19th century (Disher 1949, Booth 1965, Hüttner 1975); in the 20th century however, these theatres have developed into student or juvenile stages or avant-garde theatres producing experimental or committed plays (Budapest, Vienna, Constantinople, contemporary Athens which has exceeded Paris in number). In this phase, theatrical architecture is no longer a prominent point in the picture of the city, it is rather a scheduled monument in the history of architecture. Recently, large new theatre buildings, like the multi-function "Megaro Moussikis" (Concert Hall) in Athens, provide new points of reference in the post-modern architectural landscape of the urban centres and can satisfy the highest technical demands.

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