























TYPES OF ASIATIC RACES. 1. Jukagire from Kolima. 2. Ostjakin (Tinbak). 3. Mongolian, Karakalr (Utshur). 9. Chinese Woman. 10. Chinaman. 11. Singhalese (Ceylon). 12. Man of Kashmir. 13. Iranian, Persian Woman. 19. Wedda (Ceylon). 20. Woman and Child of Nigrito (Philippine Islands). 21. Japanese. 22. Japanese



Radshput (Radshputana). 5. Turk, Kirghiz. 6. Tungusin, Tshapogirin. 7. Jakutin of Utshur. 8. Tibetanian  
 Malaysians. 15. Malaysians (Philippine Islands. 16. Tuda (Nilgiri, India). 17. Andamenian. 18. Andamenian  
 n. 23. Man of Linkiu. 24. Corean. 25. AINU (Jesso).



THE STANDARD HISTORY  
OF ALL  
NATIONS AND RACES

Containing a Record of all the Peoples of the World from the Earliest Historical Times, with a Description of their Homes, Customs, and Religions; their Temples, Monuments, Literature, and Art .. ..

IN  
TEN  
VOLUMES

... BY ...

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VOL. III — NATIONS

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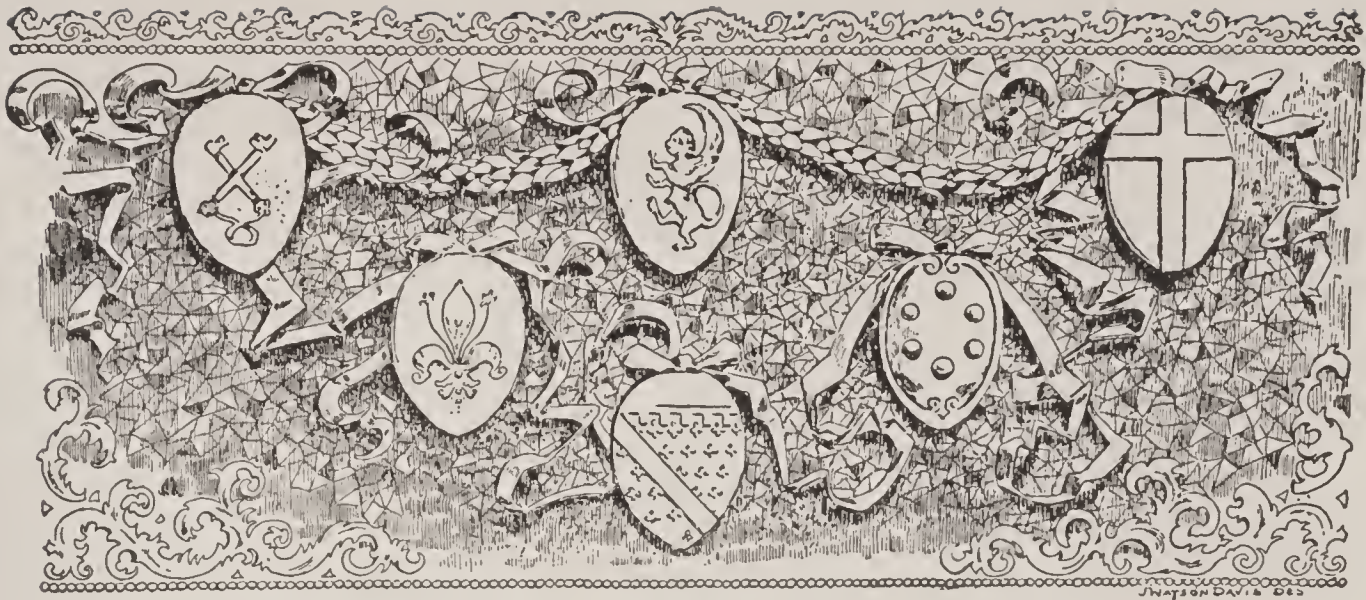
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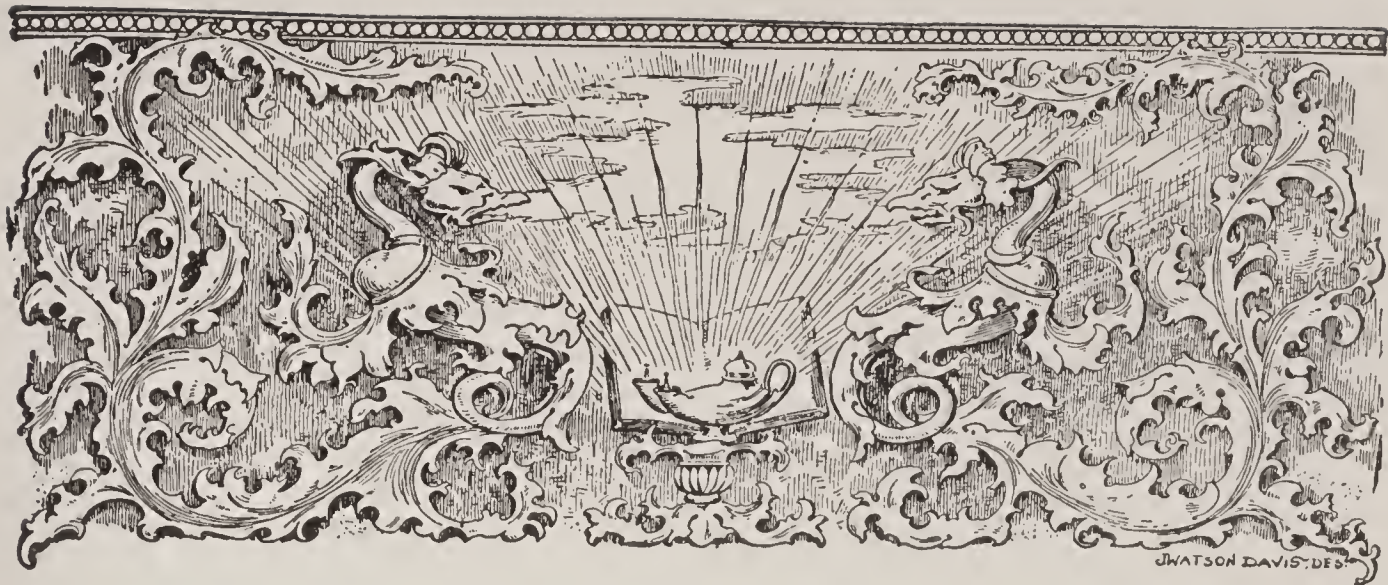
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*THE EVOLUTION OF PEOPLES—BEGINNINGS  
OF HISTORY*

CIVILIZATION has been defined as the sum at any given time of the attainments and tendencies by which the human race or any section of it is removed from the savage state. The history of progress in civilization is usually presented from one of two points of view—the first conceiving the race as starting from a high civilization, to which in point of intellectual and moral power it has yet to return; the second viewing the civilization of any period as the result of a constant and increasingly successful stream of effort upward from an origin comparable with the condition of the lower animals.

Two  
Theories  
of Civil-  
ization

The latter is the prevailing scientific theory, which finds the secret of progress in the interaction of function and environment. According to it primitive man, at first feeding on wild fruits and berries, and sheltering himself under overhanging rocks or caves, entered upon the stone age, in which, as the contemporary of the mammoth and cave bear, he made himself sharp-edged tools by chipping the flakes of flint found in the drift under gravel and clay. In the newer stone age he learned the art of polishing these rough implements, with which he cut down trees to make canoes, killed wild animals for food, and broke their bones for marrow, or shaped them into weapons. Fire he turned to account to hollow out trees, to cook his food, to fashion clay ware. Artificial means of shelter were constructed by piling rude huts of stones, by digging holes in the ground, or by driving piles into the beds of lakes and raising dwellings on them. The artistic instincts found expression in drawings of animals scratched upon bone or slate.

Primi-  
tive Man

## DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TIONMetal  
Used

The discovery of metals constituted a great step in advance. Gold and copper came early into use, and bronze was soon discovered, though a long time passed before iron was smelted and substituted for bronze where hardness was required. Gradually the roving savage became a nomadic shepherd and herdsman, or a tiller of the soil, according to his environment. The practise of barter was in part superseded by the beginnings of some sort of currency. Gesture language gave place in part to an enlarged vocabulary, and picture writing to the use of phonetic signs.

In the meantime man had begun to question himself and the world on profounder issues, entering upon the myth-making age, in which was projected outward on the chief phenomena of nature some shadow of his own personality. The worship of the sun, moon, and stars, a faith in a future life, the worship of dead ancestors, fetiches, and animals, the belief in magic and witchcraft, all sprang into being. Prayer came spontaneously to him; the idea of propitiation by sacrifice would arise from his dealings with his fellows and his foes; the sacred books began to shape themselves.

Rise of  
Tribes  
and  
Nations

Tribal and national relations, arising from ties of family and exigencies of defense, were cemented by unity of faith, and the higher social unit began to perfect itself under the rule of the patriarch and the bravest warrior. With varying needs, arising from diversity of environment, distinctions of nationality became more and more emphatic, and the history of civilization becomes the history of the nations viewed from the philosophic standpoint.

Earliest  
Historical  
Nations

It is impossible to say who were the first peoples to group themselves into what is known as a nation, nor is it within the province of this chapter to discuss that subject. Our consideration of the "earliest civilization," therefore, covers only the earliest nations of which there is extant the materials of history. It can not with reason be questioned that many peoples enjoyed a considerable degree of civilization before the historical period began. They undoubtedly practised many of the principles which govern society to-day. That they fulfilled many of the requisites of civilization is undeniably attested by the indestructible works of art which they have left. In fact, the writing of history, even within historical times, has been much more dependent upon public freedom than either art, science, or philosophy. All these have flourished under



governments more or less despotic, where history never could be written. So in this brief discussion we refer only to the earliest nations of which historical facts have been ascertained.

Previous to the fifth century B. C. there are but few dates which can be fixed with tolerable certainty; that is to say, no uninterrupted series of dates can be accurately and positively assigned to events which are known to have occurred. In the remotest ages all dates are uncertain, and all authorities more or less out of reckoning.

The oldest nations of which history gives us any account are Egypt, Babylonia, and Assyria. Egypt is a long, fruitful valley, which the Greeks called "a gift of the Nile," since it owes its very existence to that celebrated and tortuous river. The valley was divided, even in ancient times, into three parts, Upper, Middle, and Lower. In Upper Egypt was Thebes, where the vast and striking ruins, with their gigantic fragments of statues and columns, their colossal sphinxes, the tombs of kings hewn in the bare rock, the subterranean catacombs, and the statue of Memnon, that uttered musical sounds at the rising of the sun, yet testify to the former splendor and magnificence of the priestly city.

In Middle Egypt was the capital, Memphis, the vicinity of which is also distinguished by the magnificent remains of a historical antiquity. Among them are the ruins of the Labyrinth, and the Pyramids, which to this day are gazed upon with amazed awe, as the very miracles of architectural science.

Lower Egypt, occupying the Delta of the Nile, contained the metropolis, Heliopolis, and the more famous Alexandria.

Together with Egypt, Asia was the cradle of the earliest nations of which we have any history. The fertile regions watered by the Tigris and the Euphrates were formerly inhabited by Semitic tribes, including the Babylonians and Syrians. Nimrod is said to have founded the Babylonian Empire. Nineveh was built by Ninus on the banks of the Tigris.

The high degree of prosperity and civilization reached by the Assyrians in very early times is attested not only by ancient writers, but by the extensive ruins of mighty cities, and by the numerous proofs, furnished by recent excavations, of an acquaintance with the arts and sciences. The ruins of many cities are grouped

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

Few  
Dates  
Certain  
Before  
Fifth  
Century

Ruins of  
Egypt

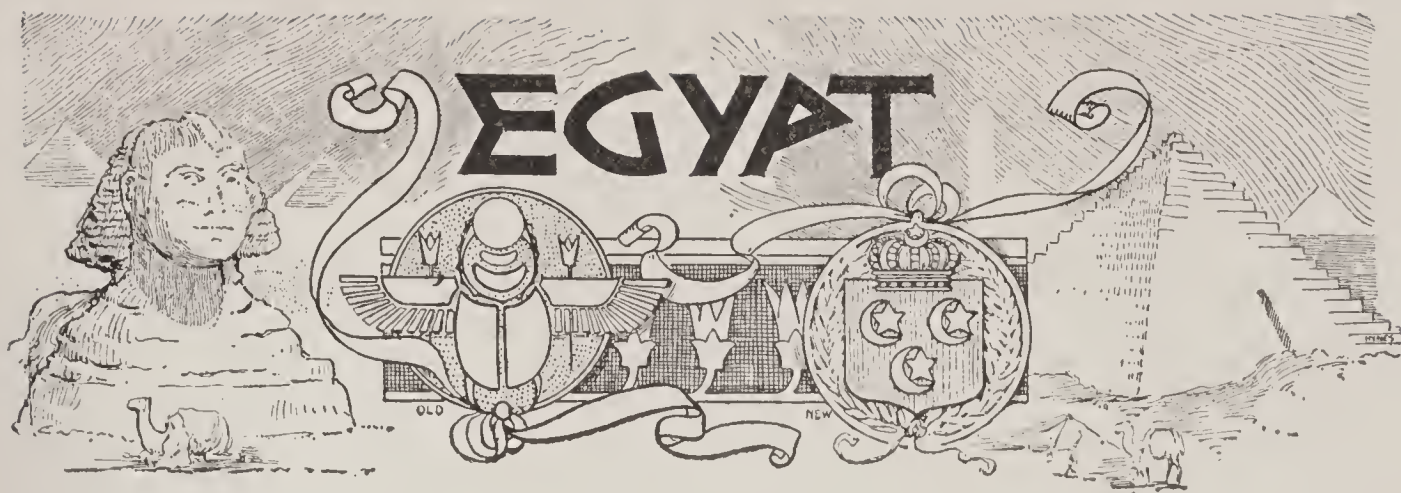
Asia

Assyria

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

around Nineveh; while lower down the Tigris exhibits an almost unbroken line of ruins from Tekrit to Bagdad.

Among the other peoples of ancient times in southwestern Asia were the Phœnicians, whose maritime knowledge made them the common carriers for all the known world; the Hebrews of Palestine and Syria; and the Medes and Persians, who worshiped fire, and believed in the spirit of Good, and the spirit of Evil.



## THE HISTORY OF EGYPT.

### THE OLDEST NATION.

[*Authorities*: Bunsen, *Aegyptens Stelle* (1844-57); Lepsius, *Denkmäler* (1849-74) and other works; Sharpe, *History of Egypt* (1846); Sir Gardner Wilkinson, *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians* (1847; new ed. by Birch, 1879); Mariette, *Monuments of Upper Egypt* (1877); Maspero, *Histoire ancien des Peuples de l' Orient* (1878), and *Egyptian Archaeology* (Eng. trans. 1887); A. B. Edwards, *A Thousand Miles up the Nile* (1878); Lane, *Modern Egyptians* (1836, new ed. 1871); M'Coan, *Egypt as It Is* (1877); Rawlinson's *History of Ancient Egypt* (1881), and *Ancient Egypt* ("Story of the Nations" series, 1887); S. Lane-Poole's *Egypt* (1881), and *Art of the Saracens* (1886); Ebers, *Egypt, Historical and Descriptive* (Eng. trans., new ed., 2 vols. 1887); De Leon, *Egypt under Its Khedives* (1882); Villiers Stuart, *Egypt after the War* (1883); Sir Mackenzie Wallace, *Egypt and the Egyptian Question* (1883); Darmesteter, *The Mahdi* (1885); *Journals of General Gordon* (1885); C. Royle, *Egyptian Campaigns, 1882-85* (1886); Baedeker's *Egypt* (1885); Murray's *Handbook for Travelers in Upper and Lower Egypt* (1888).]



EGYPT is the oldest nation of which we have any record. As in all the data of ancient history there is a mixture of poetical fable, so it is with Egypt. It is not within the province of this work to discuss the primitive conditions of mankind, but the two opposite opinions must be mentioned in this connection. Some represent a golden age of innocence and bliss, others a state of wild and savage barbarism. According to the latter doctrine, the human race was originally in the lowest state of culture, and gradually but slowly attained perfection. The former idea is found in the inspired writings of the Jews, and in the books esteemed sacred by the various Oriental nations, such as the Chinese, Indians, Persians, Babylonians, and Egyptians.

Egypt was fabled to have been first governed by a dynasty of gods, who, according to Menetho and other authors, included

**Fabulous  
Age of  
Egyptian  
History**

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 EGYPT

Hephæstus, Helios, the sun, Kronos, Osiris, Typhon, and Horus. These gods reigned 13,900 years, and were succeeded by the demi-gods and manes, whose sway occupied 4,000 years more. It is singular that, almost without exception, Egyptian mythology can hardly be said to exist. There are few or no legends about the gods. Their characters are differentiated, but their exploits are not mentioned.

The ancient writers, with their glowing generalities and half-knowledge, were able to account for a great many "historical



TEMPLE OF ISIS WITH PYLON, PHELAE.

facts" which the light of better information shows to be full of discrepancies and, in most instances, beyond the hope of proof. In other words, the historical part is in a great measure conjecture before the time when comparisons can be made with Hebrew and Assyrian history.

The epoch of Menes is the first human point in the history of ancient Egypt, and has been placed at 5004 B. C., by Mariette, at 4455 B. C. by Brugsch, and at 3892 B. C. by Lepsius, the three leading authorities. As has been pointed out, the traditional age

in Egypt is exceedingly obscure. It is a fact, however, that when Abraham entered the Delta from Canaan, they had long been enjoying the advantages of a settled government.\* They had built cities, invented hieroglyphic signs and improved them into syllabic writing, and almost into an alphabet. They had invented records to represent or picture their kings' names and actions on the massive temples which they raised. The priest Menetho (about 250 B. C.) arranged the list of the kings of Egypt into thirty dynasties, and this division is still used. The fourth dynasty, known as the

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION  
EGYPT

Ancient  
Egyptian  
Writing



COURT COLUMNS, TEMPLE OF RAMESES III.

pyramid dynasty, bears the date of 2800–2700 B. C. It was during these years that three of its kings, Khufa, Khafra, and Menkaura, built the largest pyramids.

\* The civilization of the Egyptians had reached a high pitch from the earliest period to which we can trace their history. The masonry of the passages in the great pyramid has not been surpassed at any age. In mechanical arts the carpenter, boat-builder, potter, leather-cutter, glass-blower, and others are frequently represented on their ancient monuments, and we see the blowpipe, bellows, and siphons; the press, balance, lever; the saw, the adze, the chisel, the forceps, the syringe, harpoon, razors; we have also glazed pottery, the potter's wheel, and the kiln; and dated specimens of glass of the time of

Ancient  
Civiliza-  
tion in  
Egypt

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 EGYPT

About 2100 B. C., Egypt was conquered by the Hyksos, or Shepherd Kings, who invaded Egypt from the east, and established their capital at Tanis (Zoan). The Theban princes seem, however, to have preserved a state of semi-independence, and at last a revolt commenced which ended by the complete expulsion of



WALL-PAINTING FROM THE TOMB OF PTAH-HOTEP, AT SAKKARA: OF THE PYRAMID AGE.

the Shepherd Kings from Egypt, about 1600 B. C., by Aahmes (Amasis), of Thebes, the first of the eighteenth dynasty. With

Thothmes III, 1445 B. C. Gold beating, damascening, engraving, casting, inlaying, wire drawing, and other processes were practised. The processes of growing and preparing flax, as well as the looms employed, are all depicted. The social and domestic life of the ancient Egyptians is pictured for us on the walls of their temples and tombs. The rich spent much of their time in hospitality and entertainments, especially of a musical kind. In the country districts the superintendence of the agricultural works or the fisheries on their estates was varied by the sports and pleasures of a country life. The lower orders were poor and uneducated, scantily fed and clothed, and held in contempt by the higher classes. But there was no strict separation into caste; and although the priests formed a ruling bureaucracy, the highest posts were open to the successful scholar. Next to the priesthood in importance was the military class or order, who were all landholders, and bound to serve in time of war. Below these were the husbandmen, who paid a small rent to the king. Egyptian custom seems to have allowed but one wife, who occupied an honorable and well-established position as the "lady of the house."

Aahmes and the expulsion of the Shepherd Kings began the reign of those great Theban kings who built a temple and magnificent palaces at Thebes. The Ramessides formed the nineteenth dynasty. They commenced with Rameses I, who seems to have been of lower Egyptian extraction. The Great Rameses II, the legendary Sesostris,\* made a successful war upon the neighboring Arabs, and covered Egypt with magnificent buildings. He was probably the Pharaoh who oppressed the Hebrews, and the Exodus may have occurred under his successor and son, Manepthah, about 1300 B. C., although this date can not rest upon any accurate information.

The twenty-fifth dynasty came to the throne with King Hirhor, who attempted to restore Egyptian rule to the East. He conquered and plundered Jerusalem. After his death Egypt was torn by civil wars, and eventually the Ethiopian king, Shabah, conquered it. (See *Assyria*.)

About 527 B. C., Cambyses, king of Persia, overran Egypt, and made it a Persian province. Under his reign the Egyptians suffered much oppression. After the Persian defeat at Marathon (September, 490 B. C.), the Egyptians arose and recovered their independence for a short time, but were again subdued, and, in spite of two other revolts, Egypt remained a Persian province until Persia itself was conquered by Alexander the Great, B. C. 332. Egypt then became a Greek state. Many Greeks had already settled within its boundaries, but the Egyptians were treated as an inferior race. Alexandria became the new Greek capital. After the death of Alexander, his general, Ptolemy, took possession of the throne, and became the first of the Greek dynasties that for 300 years made Egypt one of the chief kingdoms of the world.

The Ptolemies were magnificent patrons of letters and the arts.†

\* Sesostris is the Greek name of a celebrated Egyptian monarch whose name has passed into the series of those conquerors who have achieved almost universal empire. According to the Greek legendary history, Sesostris invaded Libya, Arabia, Asia, Europe, Thrace, and Scythia. In the south he subdued Ethiopia, and extended his dominions even to India. Though some ancient historians have placed his reign during the third and fourth dynasties, it is more reasonable to believe that his exploits are confused reminiscences of Sesthos I and Rameses II, of the nineteenth dynasty.

† The monuments of Egypt are of two main periods: those built in the times of the Pharaohs, or native kings, and those built during the rule of the Greeks and Romans (after 330 B. C.). The former period was by far the longer and more important, and to it belong the most characteristic examples of Egyptian architecture, such as pyramids, vast

DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

EGYPT

Thebes

Egypt  
a  
Persian  
ProvinceA  
Greek  
StateEgyptian  
Art

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 EGYPT

Among those who flourished under their rule were Theocritus, Callimachus, Euclid, the geometrician, and the astronomer Ertosthe-

temples, some of them cut in the solid rock (as at Ipsambul), rock-cut tombs, gigantic monolithic obelisks, and colossal statues. The characteristic features of the style are solidity, boldness, and originality. The pyramid is one of the best-known forms of Egyptian art, and there is little doubt that these structures were intended as the tombs of kings.

Not only is the pyramid the first form of Egyptian art, but modifications of its form can be seen in the main outlines of all their later edifices. Of the arts, architecture took the first place, and sculpture and painting were subservient to it; statues were set up to adorn temples, not temples built to contain statues; walls were covered with sculpture and painting for a decorative purpose. The leading idea of the Egyptian religion, life after



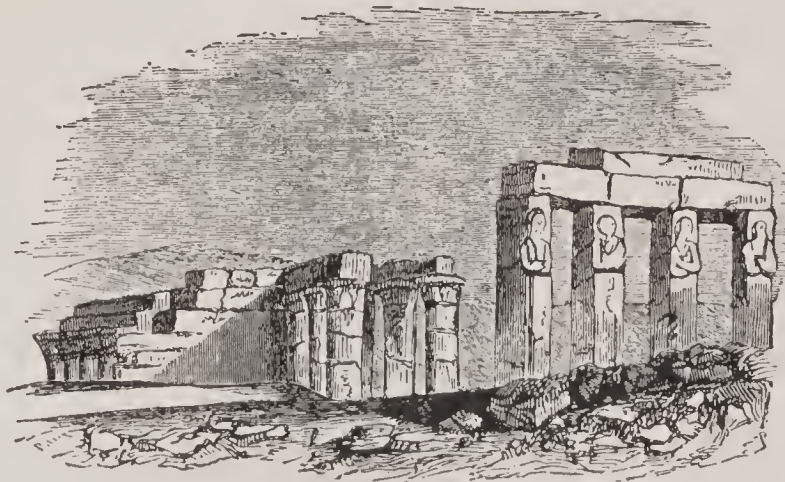
PYRAMID OF CEPHREN, GHIZEH.

death, found almost universal expression in Egyptian art, so we find tombs whose construction is as lasting as the rocks on which they rested. Their art was always dignified, and the colors, whether seen in a strong light outside the monument, or in the dim twilight within, are never glaring. In the whole range of ancient art, the next place to the perfection attained by the Greeks belongs among the Egyptians; indeed, it sometimes excels Greek art, as when the natural is subordinated to the ideal in depicting animal forms. Probably the finest examples of the idealization of animal forms that have been produced in any age are found in the lions taken from Gebel Barkal, and presented by the fourth Duke of Northumberland to the British Museum. Despite the religious and superstitious character of the ancient Egyptians, their plain dress and simple food, they were singularly



nes and Aratos. But while the Alexandrian Greeks were ruling the Egyptians, another power was fast undermining the Greeks, for the Romans were spreading their dominions rapidly at that time. Ptolemy Auletes went to Rome to ask help against his subjects, and the famous Cleopatra\* maintained her power only through her personal influence with Julius Cæsar and Mark Antony.

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EARLIEST  
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TION  
EGYPT



RUINED TEMPLE AT THEBES

mirthful, taking great delight in music and the dance, and so given to caricature that even in a representation of funeral ceremonies, the artist can not omit a ludicrous incident.

The ancient Egyptians attained a high degree of excellence in the industrial arts. Their processes of the manufacture of linen and weaving of other cloths have never been surpassed. Their glass and pottery were excellent in quality, suitable to their various purposes, and very nearly as remarkable for artistic finish as those of the Greeks. They showed great skill and artistic taste in their furniture and musical instruments; their vessels of metal and alabaster; their arms and domestic implements.

That music was not a neglected art is shown by the great number and variety of musical instruments represented, lyres to be played either with or without the plectrum, various kinds of harps, played with the hand, and also a primitive sort of guitar being among their many kinds of stringed instruments. The Egyptians had also single and double pipes, cymbals, flutes, the trumpet, and drums of different kinds, beaten with the hands or sticks. A "military band" of the time of Sesostris would probably have gone to the front sounding martial strains on the trumpet, drum, and cylindrical maces, but in their temple services a full orchestra of both stringed and wind instruments would have been used. If there is any affinity existing between the modern Egyptian musician and his ancient predecessor, we can be safe in assuming that fineness of ear and of execution coupled with a total ignorance of harmony were leading characteristics of the primitive performer.

\*Cleopatra (B. C. 69-30) was a Greek queen of Egypt, daughter of Ptolemy Auletes. When she was seventeen her father died, leaving her as joint heir to the throne with his eldest son Ptolemy, whom she was to marry — such marriages being common among the Ptolémies. Being deprived of her part in the government (B. C. 49), she won Cæsar to her cause, and was reinstated by his influence. In a second disturbance Ptolemy lost his life, and Cæsar proclaimed Cleopatra queen of Egypt, though she was compelled to take her brother, the younger Ptolemy, as husband and colleague. Cæsar continued some time at Cleopatra's court, and had a son by her named Cæsarion. By poisoning her brother she remained sole possessor of the regal power, took the part of the triumvirs in the civil war at Rome, and after the battle of the Philippi sailed to join Antony at Tarsus. Their meeting was celebrated by splendid festivals; she accompanied him to Tyre, and was followed by him on her return to Egypt. After his conquest of Armenia he again returned to her, and made his three sons by her, and also Cæsarion, kings. On the

Cleopatra  
in  
Power

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TION

## EGYPT

Upon the defeat of the latter by Augustus, B. C. 30, Egypt became a province of Rome. It was still a Greek state, and Alexandria was the chief seat of Greek learning and science. On the spread of Christianity the old Egyptian doctrines lost their sway. Sects and Gnostics united astrology and magic with religion. Catechetical schools and the schools of Alexandrian platonics



CEPHREN, BUILDER OF SECOND PYRAMID OF GHIZEH,  
CAIRO MUSEUM

were in vogue, and monasteries were built all over Egypt. The pagan hermits were replaced by Christian monks, and the Bible was translated into Coptic. In A. D. 337 the great Roman Empire was divided into the Eastern and Western empires, and Egypt became a province of the latter, and sank deeper and deeper into barbarism and weakness. In 640 A. D. it was conquered by the Saracens under Caliph Omar. As

commencement of the war between Augustus and Antony, the latter lost a whole year in festivals and amusements with Cleopatra at Ephesus, Samos, and Athens, and when at last the fleets met at Actium, Cleopatra suddenly took to flight, with all her ships, and Antony immediately followed her. They fled to Egypt, and declared to Augustus that if Egypt were left to Cleopatra's children, they would thenceforth live in retirement. Augustus, however, demanded Antony's death, and advanced on Alexandria. Believing Cleopatra, who had taken refuge in her mausoleum, to be treacherous and dead, Antony threw himself on his sword, and shortly afterward Cleopatra killed herself by applying an asp to her arm to escape the ignominy of being led in a Roman triumph. With her the dynasty of the Ptolemies ended.

a province of the Caliphs it was now under the government of the celebrated Abbasides, Harun-ar-Rashid, and Al-Mamun, and that of the heroic Sultan Saladin. The last dynasty was overthrown, however, in 1250 by the Mamelukes, who in their turn were conquered by the Turks in 1516-17. The Mamelukes made repeated attempts to cast off the Turkish yoke, until about the end of the eighteenth century, at which time the French conquered Egypt and held it until 1801, when they were driven out by the British under Abercrombie and Hutchinson.

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TION

EGYPT



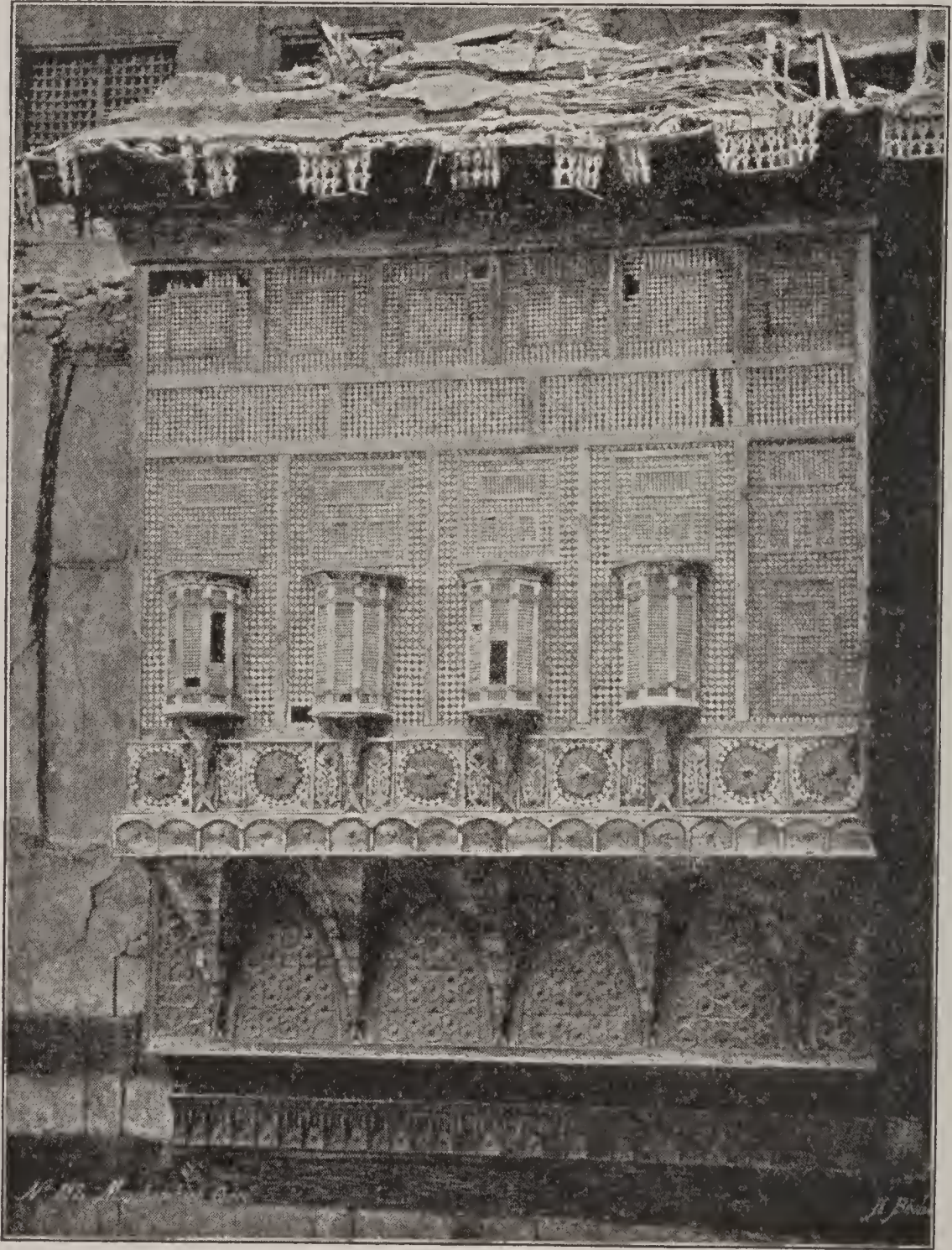
RELIEF, HYPOSTYLE HALL, GREAT TEMPLE OF KARNAK, AT THEBES

On the expulsion of the French, the Turkish forces under Mehemet Ali Bey took possession of the kingdom. Mehemet Ali was made pasha, and being a man of great ability, administered the government vigorously, and also greatly extended the Egyptian territories. At length he broke with the Porte, and after gaining a decisive victory over the Ottoman troops in Syria in 1839, he was acknowledged by the Sultan as viceroy of Egypt, with the right of succession in his family. He was succeeded by his uncle, Said, son of Mehemet. Under his rule railways were opened, and the cutting of the Suez canal commenced. After Said's death

Turkey  
Gains  
Control

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 TION  
 EGYPT

Ismail Pasha, a grandson of Mehemet Ali, obtained the government in 1863. His administration was vigorous but exceedingly extravagant, and brought the finances of the country into great disorder. Three years after his accession he obtained the firman



LATTICE WINDOW, CAIRO

under the Sultan, granting him the title of *Khedive*. In 1879 he was forced to abdicate under pressure of the British and French, and was replaced by his son Tewfik. In 1882 the "National Party" under Arabi Pasha revolted, and forced the Khedive to flee. On July 11 of that year a British fleet bombarded Alexandria and

restored the Khedive, and at Tel-el-Kebir, Arabi's forces were totally crushed on September 14.

A revolution in the Sudan under the leadership of Mohammed Ahmed, the so-called Mahdi, gave the government trouble. In

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MOSQUE OF EMIR AKBAR, CAIRO

1883 the Mahdi's forces annihilated the Egyptian forces under Hicks Pasha in Kordofan. The British troops\* were then dis-

Sudan  
 Rising  
 under the  
 Mahdi

\* The government of Egypt is in the hands of the khedive, or viceroy, who is assisted by a ministry formed on the model of those of Western Europe. The title and government are hereditary, but the khedive, as a Turkish vassal, has to pay an annual tribute to the

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TION

EGYPT

General  
Gordon  
Killed

patched to Suakin and inflicted two severe defeats on the Mahdi's followers there. In the meantime the British cabinet had resolved to abandon the Sudan, and General Gordon, already famous for his work in this district, was sent to effect the safe withdrawal of the garrison in 1884. By this time, however, the Mahdi's forces were strong enough to hold the General in Khartum, where for nearly a



GENERAL C. G. GORDON

year he held the town, but perished in January, 1885, before the relief expedition under Sir Garnet Wolseley could reach him.

He had attempted an impossible task. He could not leave the garrison to fall into the hands of the Mahdi, and he required re-enforcements of British troops before he could drive the former from the neighborhood of Khartum. The timid and indecisive policy of the British government was responsible for this forced inactivity. At last, too late, in October, 1884, an English expedition under Lord Wolseley was despatched to Khartum, and passing up the Nile, ar-

rived in that city only to learn that the heroic Gordon had been assassinated two days before, January 20, 1885.

The expedition withdrew, and the Sudan was left in a state of

Govern-  
ment of  
Egypt

sultan of \$3,500,000. For some years previous to 1882 two controllers-general, appointed respectively by France and Great Britain, had extensive powers of control in the administration of the country; but in that year the French having refused to lend assistance in putting down the rebellion of Arabi Pasha, a British army occupied Egypt, and the government has since been carried on under the supervision of Great Britain, so far as all financial matters are concerned; and besides a British army is acting with the native Egyptian army in opening up the Sudan.

anarchy. In the equatorial region, one of General Gordon's lieutenants, known as Emin Pasha, still held out, and in 1888 he was visited by the explorer Stanley at the head of a relief expedition. British interference here stopped the rebel advances, and held Wady Halfa as an advance post of Egyptian territory. The Mahdi again threatened Egypt in 1896, and the British government again took steps to crush him. The European powers began

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 EGYPT



KIOSK, OR BED OF PHARAOH, PHILAE

to fret over the question of the war in Egypt, but Great Britain persisted in military operations. France, in particular, opposed the British movement on the ground that an expedition against the Mahdi was a movement in aid of the Italians in their struggle with King Menelek of Abyssinia, and also that it was an excuse for a campaign for again establishing British control over the whole of the Sudan, thus interfering with French plans of expeditions in that region.

General Sir H. H. Kitchener was made commander-in-chief, or Sidar, of the Egyptian army by the Khedive. The army consisted of 12,000 men, all native Egyptian troops, except 1,200 British

Emin  
 Pasha  
 and  
 Stanley's  
 Relief  
 Expedi-  
 tion

Kitchener  
 at the  
 Head  
 of the  
 Egyptian  
 army

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 EGYPT

Victory  
 at  
 Dongola

The  
 Fashoda  
 Affair

The Per-  
 manent  
 Advance  
 up the  
 Nile

regulars. The troops began to move toward the southern frontier in March, and in less than a month reached Assouan. The Dervishes attacked the Egyptian troops on several occasions, but were repulsed. In September, 1896, an advance was made upon Dongola, and the principal dervish chiefs surrendered. The Anglo-Egyptian forces on the Nile continued to push their way southward, and by the end of October established their position as far as the mouth of the Atbara River. They made an effective reconnoissance by gunboats up to and through the town of Metammeh, where the dervish forces were strongly entrenched.

While General Kitchener was advancing toward Khartum from the north, it was rumored that the French were establishing themselves at Fashoda upon the Upper Nile, and that they were hastening their way to Khartum to complete an agreement with the Mahdi, made in 1896, by which France recognized the Sudan as an independent state under the suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey.

The leisurely but effective advances of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition moving up the Nile caused considerable comment in Great Britain. The people became restless for more aggressive news from that quarter, but General Kitchener seems to have been complete master of the situation. He had learned from history, ancient and modern, that many expeditions up the Nile had proved disastrous. His policy, therefore, was not to rely upon the numerical magnitude of the invading army, nor yet on the other hand, the failure of the Dervishes to fight with fierce courage, in great numbers and with no little skill. He planned to conduct a campaign on modern lines, using the most modern machinery, proceeding a stage at a time, and pausing until his corps of railroad builders had brought their construction clear up to his camp. Besides, on the Nile he had a number of gunboats of very light draft, all armed with Maxim and other rapid-fire machine-guns. He took the precaution to protect the rear and keep the railroad open, thus preventing the enemy from cutting in behind. The Dervishes crossed the Nile to Shendy, and advanced up the river as if to meet the Sidar at Berber. They selected their ground at Dakhila, where the Atbara River joins the Nile. Meanwhile the British gunboats had pressed forward and captured Shendy, and the Dervishes, to the number of about 20,000, were cut off from their supplies.







A WOMAN OF THEBES

The Anglo-Egyptian army advanced promptly to meet them in their entrenched position. The fight occurred April 8, 1898. The Mahdi's forces were totally routed, leaving about 5,000 dead upon the field. The combined British and Egyptian troops sacrificed about 60 men killed, and 300 to 400 wounded. The use of the Maxim guns was responsible for the great slaughter of the Dervishes. The headquarters of the Caliph is at Omdurman, opposite

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 TION  
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RELIEF, GREAT TEMPLE OF KARNAK, AT THEBES

Khartum. His troops were led in the fight of April 8 by Emir Mahoud, who was captured.

**Victory  
 Over  
 Dervishes**

The railroad is being pushed to the southward as fast as possible, for upon this depends the complete opening up of the Sudan. It is proposed to push this railroad on to the south to meet the line which Cecil Rhodes is building north from South Africa. The two, it is planned, will meet in the province of Uganda.

Omdurman is the new capital of the Sudan, built by the Mahdi after his seizure and destruction of Khartum in 1885. As General Kitchener's expedition approached Omdurman, the Caliph's army

## DIVISION I

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TION

## EGYPT

The  
Mahdi's  
Destructive  
Rule

gradually but bravely came forth to meet the enemy. The result of his defeat has been the reopening of the great region which the fanatical movement of the '80's, led by the Mahdi, closed up. At that time the region was occupied by not less than 12,000,000 people. Under the rule of the Mahdi the district became desolate, trade was destroyed, and the population was reduced about one half.

As soon as General Kitchener had firmly established himself at



TOMBS OF THE CALIPHS, CAIRO

Khartum, he received a definite report from a Dervish force returning from an expedition up the Nile, that they had encountered a body of white men, who carried a tri-colored flag. The Sirdar promptly steamed up the river with a body of troops and three gunboats to investigate. He reached Fashoda, and found there Major Marchand, a Frenchman, with a half-dozen other Frenchmen and a body of Senegalese soldiers.

General Kitchener informed Major Marchand that he was on Anglo-Egyptian territory, and requested him to lower his French flag. He said that he was acting under the authority of the French government, and could not obey the Sirdar without authority from the French government. The camp occupied by the French was

General  
Kitchener  
at  
Fashoda

located on a tongue of land surrounded by impassable morasses, except for a narrow entrance. Here General Kitchener established a sufficiently strong force of Egyptian troops, and proceeded further up the river, and established another outpost of Egyptian troops. Thereupon the Sirdar returned to Khartum, leaving the French to pursue their journey to the eastward, whither they were going on a trip across the continent of Africa.

This expedition immediately gave cause for alarm in Great Britain, but after some diplomatic correspondence, the French government explained that Major Marchand was simply making an exploit of African travel, and they hastened to disclaim any intention whatever of occupying the territory. It has been proposed by General Kitchener that a college be established at Khartum, to be called Gordon College in honor of General Gordon. General Kitchener was appointed governor of the new Sudan region in April, 1899.

The position of Great Britain in the reopening of the Sudan is not clearly defined, for the reason that General Kitchener is neither in the military nor civil service of the British



DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST CIVILIZATION  
 EGYPT

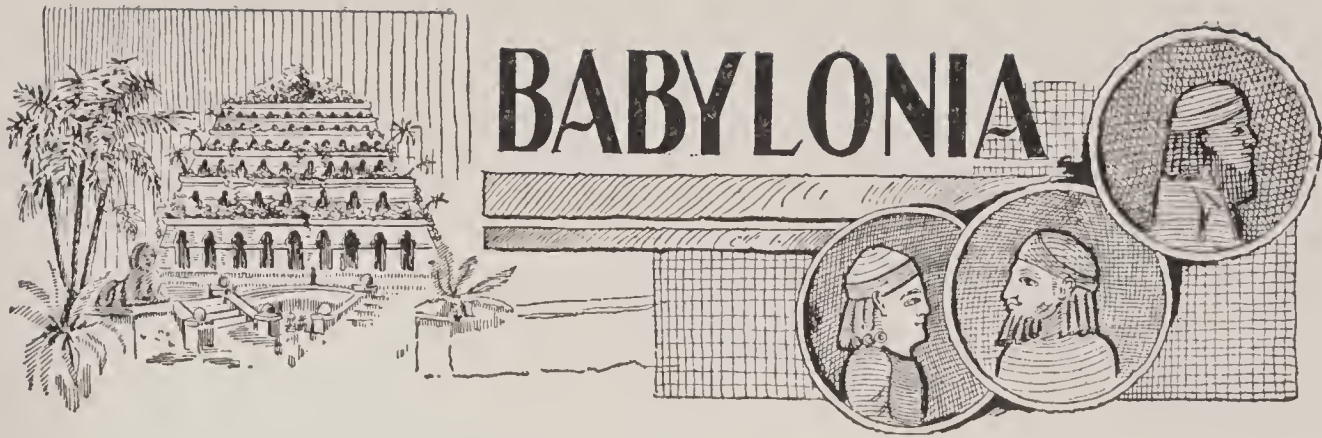
France Discredits Major Marchand

Great Britain and the Sudan

DIVISION I  
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 EGYPT

nation, but is commander-in-chief of the Egyptian army, appointed by the Khedive. Moreover, the expenses of the expedition are paid from the Egyptian treasury. However, the railroad which is being built, and the permanent advance which is being made, will open up a vast region of untold resources; and as a railroad is being constructed from South Africa to meet the Egyptian railroad, it is clear that, at least so far as commercial advantages are concerned, Great Britain will have practical control of the whole eastern half of the continent of Africa.

The convention between the British and Egyptian governments signed at Cairo, January 19, 1899, provides for the administration of the territory south of the twenty-second parallel of latitude by a governor-general appointed by Egypt with the assent of Great Britain, and declares the general principles in accordance with which the administration shall be carried on. The British and Egyptian flags shall be used together; laws shall be made by proclamation; no duties shall be levied on imports from Egypt, and duties on imports from other countries shall not exceed those levied in Egypt. The Sudan has been divided into four first-class districts, Omdurman, Senaar, Kassala, and Fashoda; and into three second-class districts, Assuan, Wady Halfa, and Suakim. Extending southward from the frontier of Egypt and Lake Albert Nyanza, a distance of about 1,400 miles, and stretching from the Red Sea to the confines of Waday in Central Africa, is an immense district which is divided into the provinces of Dongola, Khartum, Suakim, Senaar, Kordofan, Dar Foor, and the Equatorial Province. Lord Kitchener was appointed governor-general of the district January 21, 1899.



## THE HISTORY OF BABYLONIA

### THE CHALDEANS

[*Authorities:* Oppert, *Histoire des Empires de Chaldée et d'Assyrie* (Versailles, 1865); Layard, *Nineveh and Babylon* (1867); Loftus, *Travels and Researches in Chaldea and Susiana* (1857); Lenormant, *La Langue primitive de la Chaldée* (1875), and *Manuel d'Histoire ancienne de l'Orient* (3 vols. 1882); Sayce, *Ancient Empires of the East* (1884), *Fresh Light from the Ancient Monuments* (1885), and *Hibbert Lectures* (1887); H. C. Rawlinson, *Cuneiform Inscriptions of Western Asia* (5 vols. 1861-1884); Delitzsch and Haupt, *Assyriologische Bibliothek* (1880); Perrot and Chipiez, *A History of Art in Chaldea and Assyria* (1884; Eng. trans. 2 vols. 1884); the *Transactions of the Society of Biblical Archaeology* (1872-87); and the *Babylonian and Oriental Record*.]



**B**ABYLONIA was an old Asiatic empire, occupying the region watered by the lower course of the Euphrates and the Tigris, and by their combined stream. The inhabitants, though usually designated Babylonians, were sometimes called Chaldeans. This great ancient empire is traditionally stated to have been founded by Belus, who is supposed to have been the Nimrod spoken of in the Book of Genesis.

The discoveries of recent years have given to the history of the ancient Babylonian empire the most surprising retrospective enlargement. The monuments and inscriptions which have been obtained from the oldest cities give evidence that the civilization of Babylonia has an antiquity rivaling that of ancient Egypt. The earliest monument of which the date can be accurately given, is a stone whorl in the British Museum, brought from Sepharviam. The king's name inscribed is that of Sargon I, king of Akkad, who is now universally assigned to the remote antiquity of 3800 B. C. Older still, in all probability, are the records found at Tel-lo in the neighborhood of Erech. These early inscriptions are mostly of a

Ancient  
Monu-  
ments

DIVISION I

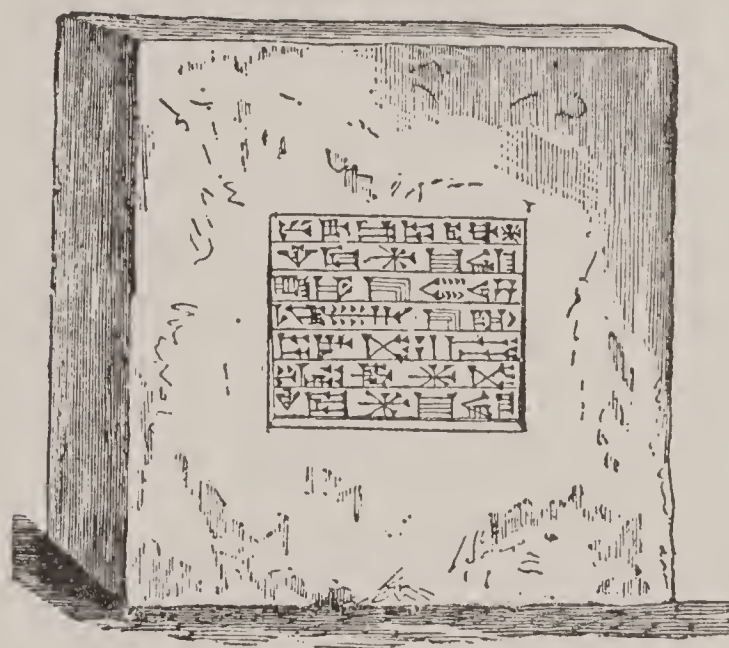
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

BABYLONIA

very short character, containing little more than the names and titles of the kings who ruled the cities, but at the same time they afford information as to the state of civilization existing in Chaldea nearly 4,000 years B. C.

Oldest  
Cities

The empire was not one consolidated whole, and polyarchy was the most prevalent form of government, each state being ruled by its local king,—thus, Sargon was king of Akkad, and especially styles himself king of “the city.” Some of these early rulers claimed the title of King of Sumir and Akkad, the division which in future times had a geographical signification of north and south



CUNEIFORM WRITING

Babylon, and which in earlier ages was certainly to be regarded rather as an ethnic than a local division of its early population. Babylon, though always one of the most important cities of the empire, was not the earliest capital, for the cradle of Chaldean civilization was in the region of the south. The most important city was Uru-ki, the Erech of Genesis. The next most important city

of this southern region was Ur, the sacred city of the moon-god, and many others.

The first ruler who succeeded in combining these various kingdoms into one consolidated whole was Ur-Bahu, whose reign commenced about 2700 B. C. He was succeeded by his son, Dungi, who left a large number of inscriptions. The first real historical chronicle belongs to this period, and is found on a statue of Gudea, which shows the Babylonians already at war with Elam (Persia) and the nations to the west. In 2280 B. C. a powerful confederation of Elamites invaded southern Chaldea, and sacked the capital, Erech. This dynasty lasted until 2120 B. C., and was very powerful. Of the kings of this period two were especially important; viz., Kudur-Mabug, who appears to have been lord paramount of the confederation of kings, and who claimed the title of “Lord of the West and Syria,” and his son, Eri-Abur, who was ruler of



Larsa. This dynasty was overthrown by the powerful usurper, Kharramugas, who availed himself of a period of oppression, and seized the throne. During his dynasty great political changes took place, and Babylon began to assume its position as capital of the whole empire. He rebuilt several temples,\* and his greatest public work was the construction of a canal, which undoubtedly was the Nar-Malka, or Royal River, of the classics. This canal crossed northern Babylonia, passing through Sippara, and is now represented by the Yusifich canal, one of the few ancient canals navigable to the present day.

The three succeeding dynasties extended over a period of about 600 years, consisting of a mixture of Semitic and non-Semitic princes, who ruled with Babylon as the capital. One of the most important Babylonian inscriptions of this period is the memorial stone of Nebuchadnezzar I, 1150 B. C., a usurper who seized the throne, and waged war against the rising empire of Assyria.

The rise of Assyria brought about the decline of Babylonia, so that the latter was under Assyrian dominion, though with intervals of independence. Babylonia was captured by Tiglath-pileser I, in 1130 B. C. Tiglath-pileser II of Assyria (745 to 727 B. C.) made himself master of Babylonia, and the conquest of the kingdom had to be repeated by his successor, Sargon, who expelled the Babylonian king, Merodach-Baladan. After about sixty years the whole Babylonian empire arose under Nabopolassar, and joining the Medes against the Assyrians, freed Babylonia from the superiority of the latter power, 625 B. C.

The new empire was at its height of power and glory under Nabopolassar, son of Nebuchadnezzar (604-561 B. C.), who subjected Jerusalem,† Tyre, Phœnicia, and even Egypt, and carried

\* The classic writers represent the civilization of the Babylonians as of high stamp. The government was despotic, of a kind to suit a luxurious and effeminate population. Arts and commerce were highly flourishing. The latter was carried on by caravans with countries perhaps as far as India, and by shipping to the Persian Gulf with Arabia. Babylonia was famous for its dyes, its cloths, and embroideries. The general prosperity was such that Babylonia and Assyria together were able to pay to Persia in the time of Darius Hystaspes, a yearly tribute of one thousand talents (nearly a million dollars).

† The deportation, under Nebuchadnezzar, of a large portion of the inhabitants of Judah, after the fall of Jerusalem, 586 B. C., must be carefully distinguished from the carrying into Assyria of a large number of the inhabitants of the northern kingdom—the ten tribes—by Sargon, the successor of Shalmaneser, as early as 721. A large number of the inhabitants of Judah had already been carried off to Babylon in 597, when Zedekiah had

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BABYLONIA

An  
Ancient  
Canal

Rise of  
Assyria.  
Decline  
of Baby-  
lonia

Arts,  
Com-  
merce,  
and Gov-  
ernment

Babylon-  
ish Cap-  
tivity

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 TION  
 BABYLONIA

his dominion to the shores of the Mediterranean, and northward to the Armenian Mountains. The capital, Babylon, was rebuilt by him. He was succeeded by his son Evil-Merodach, but the dynasty soon came to an end, and Nabonadius came to the throne 555 B. C., and made his son Belshazzar co-ruler with him.

Under  
 Persian  
 Control

Babylonia was taken by Cyrus, a Persian monarch, in 538, and the second Babylonian empire came to an end, Babylonia being incorporated in the Persian empire. On the accession to the throne of Darius, the old rebellious spirit once more asserted itself, and for three years the city held out against the Persians. Again, in 513 B. C., the city revolted. With the overthrow of the Persian monarch Babylonia came under the short-lived dominion of Alexander the Great, who died in that city, 323 B. C. About 140 B. C. it was taken from the Syrian monarchs by the Parthians. It came into the hands of the Romans only temporarily under Trajan (114 A. D.), under Septimius Severus (199 A. D.), and again under Julian (363 A. D.).

A Part of  
 Turkey

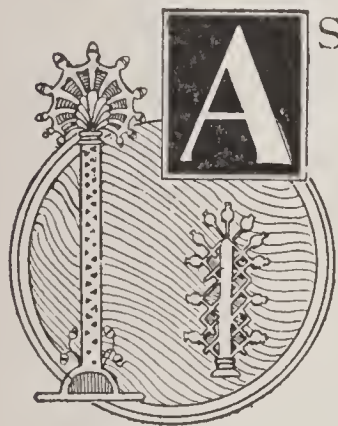
When in 650 the successors of Mohammed put an end to the new Persian monarchy of the Sassanides, the province of Babylonia became the seat of the Caliphs until 1258. Since 1638, when the Turks for the second time took it from the Persians, it has been under the dominion of Turkey, divided into the pashalics of Bagdad and Basra.

become king over the remainder. It was not long before these excited the anger of the powerful Chaldean king, and the second capture of the city and captivity of the inhabitants put an end to the kingdom of Judah. They were carried to Babylon, and there they remained in tolerable comfort for 56 years, though the duration of the captivity is usually reckoned at 70 years, dating from the earlier captivity. Many of them acquired property, and even riches; some were called to court, and even raised to high offices in the state. They were allowed the free exercise of their religion, and here Ezekiel and the unknown author of the last part of the book of Isaiah gave hope to the spiritual aspirations of the despondent people. When Cyrus overthrew the Babylonian empire (538 B. C.), he allowed the Jews to return to their own country, but only 42,300 of the tribes of Judah, Benjamin, and Levi are said to have returned. They found the depopulated territory occupied with a mixed population from the surrounding tribes and the residue of the Jewish population; and with the religious isolation they had learned in Babylon, refused to recognize these as members of their own community.



## THE HISTORY OF ASSYRIA

[*Authorities:* Tiele, *Babylonisch-Assyrische Geschichte* (2 vols. 1886 and 1888); George Rawlinson, *Five Great Monarchies*; George Smith, *History of Assyria*; Sayce, *Ancient Empires of the East*; F. Hommel, *Geschichte Babyloniens und Assyriens* (Berlin, 1885-87); Perrot and Chipiez, *History of Art in Chaldea and Assyria*, from the French (2 vols., London, 1884); Sayce, *Assyria, its Princes, Priests, and People* (London); Schrader, *Cuneiform Inscriptions and the Old Testament*, from the German (2 vols., London, 1885, 1888); G. Maspero, *Life in Ancient Egypt and Assyria* (New York, 1892).]



ASSYRIA was the northernmost of the three great countries that occupied the Mesopotamian plain. It was bounded on the north by the Niphates Mountains of Armenia; on the south by Susiana and Babylonia; on the east by Media; and on the west, according to some, by the Tigris, but more correctly by the watershed of the Euphrates, for many Assyrian ruins are found to the west of the Tigris.

As it was the boundary-land between the Semitic people and Iran, it became the scene of important political events. Its extraordinary fertility enabled it to support a large population. The high degree of prosperity and civilization reached by the inhabitants in very early times is attested not only by ancient writers, but by the extensive ruins of mighty cities, by the canals and contrivances for irrigation, and by the numerous proofs — furnished by recent excavations — of an acquaintance with the arts and sciences. The ruins of many cities are grouped around Nineveh; \* while lower

Rich and  
Highly  
Civilized

\* In the Bible narrative we are told that Nineveh was founded from Babylonia,—"Out of that land (Babylonia) he (Nimrod) went forth into Assyria" (Gen. 10:11),—and the statement is fully confirmed by the results of recent explorations. The earliest inscriptions found on the bricks from Assur (Kitch-Shergat), the ancient capital, give to the first rulers of the land the title of "high priest of the city of Assur." The next notice of Assyria does not occur until the Assyrian king Pul or Tiglath-pileser II invaded Palestine, and was

Bible  
Reference  
to  
Assyria

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 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ASSYRIA

down, the Tigris exhibits an almost unbroken line of ruins from Tekrit to Bagdad.

Ancient authorities differ widely from each other respecting the rise and progress, the extent and the duration, of the empire. These writers include Berosus, a Græco-Chaldean priest, who wrote about 268 B. C., Herodotus, and Ctesias of Cnidus, who was court physician to the Persian king Artaxerxes Mnemon (405 B. C.), Berosus, who was a member of the caste of Chaldean scribes, and able to read the inscribed records in the Babylonian libraries, has hitherto met with very strong confirmation from the inscriptions.

The Babylonian monarchy was already growing old before the Assyrian began. The early rulers of Assur were mere governors appointed by the Babylonian kings. They gradually acquired more power until they managed to set up an independent kingdom at Assur (about 60 miles below the later capital, Nineveh), in the 17th and 16th centuries B. C. A constant border warfare was long kept up, though alliances were made from time to time, and even cemented by marriages.

First  
 Assyrian  
 King

The first Assyrian king other than a viceroy, was Bel-kapkapi. His rule extended along both sides of the Tigris, but, under his successors, the boundaries varied with the valor of each king. The kingdom first began to be powerful under Rimmon-nirari I about 1320. His son, Shalmaneser I, founded Calah, and his grandson, Tiglath-Adar I, had become so powerful that he invaded Chaldea, and captured Babylon in the year 1280. His descendant in the direct line of kings was Tiglath-pileser I, about 1140, the real founder of the first Assyrian empire.

Babylon  
 Captured

Empire  
 Greatly  
 Extended

The reign of this prince, Tiglath-pileser I, son of Assur-ris-ilim, forms the zenith of the early empire. He spread the dominion of Assyria over all western Asia, from the frontiers of Elam (Persia) to the shores of the Mediterranean, and from the slopes of the mountains of Armenia, the land of Uratu, to the shores of the Per-

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bought off by Menahem, king of Israel (730 B. C.). In the same reign we find the Jewish king Jehoahaz (Ahaz) becoming a vassal of the court of Assyria, and the tribes beyond Jordan carried away captive (734 B. C.). The next reference to Assyria is that of the siege and capture of Jerusalem by Sargon (Isa. 10:11, 20), and the siege of Ashdod (812-11 B. C.). The last mention of Assyria is the record of the murder of Sennacherib by his sons in 681 B. C., and the accession of his faithful son Esar-Haddon, the most powerful of all the Assyrian monarchs, for he carried his arms as far as the Mediterranean, and conquered Egypt.

sian Gulf. He captured Babylon, Sippara, and Upiya (Opis), and reduced Chaldea to the position of a tributary state. On the west he advanced as far as Khilikhi (Cilicia), defeating the Hittites and capturing their stronghold of Carchemish, and receiving the homage of the people of Arvad and the cities of northern Phœnicia. He repaired and enlarged the palace at Calah and the temple of Anu and Rimmon at Assur.

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 ASSYRIA

The prince Assur-belkala, who succeeded his father in 1110, by his weakness as rapidly allowed the empire to fall into decay as his father by his energy had enlarged and consolidated it. For nearly two centuries Assyria sank below the horizon of western Asiatic history, and became so weakened as to render tribute to the Vannic kings of Armenia. This period of decay is synchronous with the rise and rapid development of the Hebrew kingdom under David and his successors.

Period of  
 Decline

In 930 B. C. Assyria once more began to emerge from oblivion, and a new dynasty was founded by Assur-dan II, whose son, Rimmon-nirari II (911-889 B. C.), and great-grandson Assur-natsir-pal (883-858 B. C.), by a long series of cruel wars once more established the power of Assyria. All the old provinces of the former empire were recovered, and extensive annexations made in the regions to the northeast in Armenia and Kurdistan. During the period of the middle empire, the capital was removed from Assur to Calah (Nimroud), at the junction of the Tigris and Upper Zab (Lycus), about twenty miles below Nineveh, where elaborate temples and palaces were erected by the kings.

Assur-natsir-pal was succeeded in 858 B. C. by his son, Shalmaneser II, whose annals are found inscribed on the famous Black Obelisk in the British Museum, and on the bulls and slabs from his palace at Calah. For more than thirty years he carried out year by year a series of campaigns which established the power of Assyria over all western Asia. His reign is, however, most important for the fact that during his rule the Assyrian and Hebrew annals are first brought in contact, and a valuable series of synchronisms established, which is maintained until the fall of both kingdoms.

In the year 854 B. C. Shalmaneser defeated in the battle of Kar-kar, fought in the Orontes valley, a powerful confederation of allied Syrian tribes, of which the chief leaders were Benhadad, king of Damascus, Irkhuleni, king of Hamath, and Ahab, king of

The  
 Empire  
 at its  
 Zenith

DIVISION I  
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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ASSYRIA

Israel, the latter contributing 2,000 chariots and 10,000 foot soldiers. Again, in the eighteenth year of his reign, the Assyrian king invaded Syria, and defeated Hazael of Damascus in a battle fought on the heights of Hermon or Shenir (Deut. 3 : 9), and captured 1,121 chariots and 470 carriages. He then besieged and captured Damascus, and after marching into the Hauran, where he destroyed many cities, he returned, and held a tribute "durbar" at Beyrout, near to which city his statue is carved on the rocks at the mouth of the Nahr-el-Kelb. Here he received tribute from the Tyrians, Sidonians, and Yahua abil Khumri "Jehu, the son of Omri."

The reign of Samas-Rimmon II (823-810 B. C.), the son of Shalmaneser, who succeeded to the throne after a rebellion and civil war lasting two years, added largely to the eastern provinces, and the Assyrians came for the first time in contact with the Aryan invaders, who were advancing from the northeast.

In the year 763 B. C. the Assyrian eponym canon records the observation of a solar eclipse in the month Sivan (June). This eclipse forms the pivot-point on which Assyrian chronology\* turns. The empire now began to display signs of weakness, and when Assur-nirari ascended the throne in 753 B. C., there were many indications of a spirit of revolt.

Con-  
 quered  
 Districts  
 Annexed

The throne was occupied in 745 by Pulu or Pul, a Babylonian who assumed the Assyrian name of Tiglath-pileser II. He at once instituted an entirely new system of government of the provinces of the empire. Conquered districts were now annexed, and became satrapies, ruled by Assyrian officials, and responsible for a fixed yearly revenue to the central government. Another great aim of the new sovereign was the control of the great commercial centers

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\*The chronology of the Assyrian empire now rests upon a very firm basis, being founded on several carefully prepared chronological inscriptions. The most important of this is the "Eponym Canon," a tablet containing a list of the archons, or eponyms of Nineveh or Calah, giving an exact chronology from 913-659 B. C. As each of these officials ruled in office only one year, the year was named after them; and as the date of the official year of Bursagula is fixed by a solar eclipse, the dates of all the officials can be ascertained. Fragments of seven copies of it were discovered by Sir Henry Rawlinson in 1802. A historical inscription of Rimmon-nirari I, dated on the side by the name of the eponym of the year, enables us to go back as far as 1230 B. C. A recent discovery has brought to light a table of Semitic Babylonian kings, arranged in dynasties, traced back as far as 2330 B. C. The dated contract tablets give us further help for the later dates. The parallel Assyrian inscriptions give much help in settling the chronology of Babylonia.

in western Asia. Thus Carchemish and the cities of Phœnicia were objects of campaigns to secure the trade-route through Syria.

Hamath, then in alliance with Uzziah, king of Judah, was taken by storm, and the kings of Syria hastened then to pay homage to the conqueror. This was the campaign referred to in the Scriptures (2 Kings 15 : 19), when Menahem gave a thousand talents of silver to Pul (Tiglath-pileser), king of Assyria. The successful war in Palestine and Syria was followed by campaigns in Armenia on the shores of Lake Van. The Assyrians next appear in Syria as the allies of Ahaz. The result of this campaign was the siege of Damascus, and the ravaging of the kingdoms east of Jordan. The fall of Damascus made Syria a province of the court of Nineveh, and the tribute-lists discovered recently at Nineveh show Carchemish, Damascus, Arpad, Arvad, Hamath, Tyre, Sidon, and Samaria as contributing a regular sum to the national revenue. Having reduced the west to submission, the Assyrian king now attacked Babylonia (Chaldea), and after a severe war, commencing in 731 B. C., he defeated and slew Ukin-ziru, the Kinziros of the Canon of Ptolemy, and was proclaimed king of Sumir and Akkad in 729 B. C.

This important reign ended abruptly in 727 B. C., and a weak prince, Shalmaneser IV, of whom no inscriptions are extant, ascended the throne. He made an ineffectual attempt to capture Tyre, which had revolted, and during the siege either died or was murdered at the instigation of Sargon, "the Tartan," or commander-in-chief, of his army. The usurper continued the war in Syria, and in 720 B. C. captured Samaria and carried away 27,280 of the leading inhabitants, and placed them in the province of Gozan, near the Khabour, and in Media. The latter days of the reign of Tiglath-pileser II evidently had been marked by a general revolt of the provinces, which Sargon had to reconquer; and in the battle of Raphia on the borders of Egypt, which terminated the war, he checked the advance of the Egyptians under Sabako. In 717 B. C. the Hittite capital, Carchemish, fell.

All this time the intrigues of Merodach-baladan III in Chaldea were causing trouble, but the disturbed state of the other provinces still kept Sargon from the object he most desired—the conquest of Babylon. In 710 B. C. Sargon invaded Babylonia, and after a terrible campaign captured the capital and was proclaimed king.

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION  
ASSYRIA

Baby-  
lonia Be-  
comes  
Part of  
Assyria

Bitter  
Struggle  
Between  
Baby-  
lonia  
and As-  
syria.

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ASSYRIA

He built for himself a magnificent palace called Dur Sargon, "Fort Sargon," marked by the ruins at Khorsabad, about fifteen miles from Nineveh. Sargon was killed during a revolt of the soldiers in the new palace on the 12th day of the month Ab (July), 705 B. C., when his son Sennacherib succeeded him.

The Babylonian revolt on the death of Sargon led to the return of Merodach-baladan, but nine months later he was defeated by the Assyrians in the battle of Kisu. He next ravaged Judea, capturing forty-six cities, chiefly in the hill-country, and then advanced to Jerusalem. Here he states he shut Hezekiah up in the capital "like a bird in a cage." \*

Assyria  
 Becomes  
 a Uni-  
 versal  
 Empire.

In 675 the Assyrian king commenced one of the most important wars in the whole period of Assyrian history; viz., that which resulted in the subjugation of the powerful kingdom of Egypt to the Assyrians, and left the ancient world under one rule for twenty years, thus first giving to the world the idea of *universal empire*.

After the war had waged with varied success for more than three years, the Assyrian king made one great effort to terminate it. A very powerful army left Nineveh the first day of the year, and took the road to Egypt. The march occupied three months, and on the Assyrians having reached the Egyptian strongholds, a series of battles were fought, resulting in the retreat of the Egyptians on Memphis, which was captured by the Assyrians on the 22nd of Tammuz (June). Esar-haddon returned by way of the

Mesopo-  
 tamia

\* Mesopotamia, as the name signifies, "the country between the rivers," was generally understood to be the territory lying between the Tigris and Euphrates, south of the Masius mountains, and extending as far as the Murus Mediæ of the ancients. It never formed a self-contained political unity, the more settled period of its history being probably under the Persian-Greek rule. About 700 B. C., this district formed part of the Assyrian empire; later on it was reckoned part of Babylonia. In 258 B. C., Sapor of Persia conquered and occupied Mesopotamia, and 156 A. D. was the date of the occupation by the Romans. Under the dominion of the Seleucidæ it bore the name of Osrhæne, and was for a time the seat of a dynasty which at a later date was Arabian. The capital of this kingdom was Edessa, which was later a Roman colony bearing the name of Justinapolis. Another important city was Nisibis, which played an important part in the wars of the Romans against the Persians. Captured by Lucullus, surrendered by Tigranes, recovered by Trajan, again abandoned by Hadrian, re-occupied under Lucius Verus, and fortified by Severus, it became the capital of the province, and remained the frontier fortress of the Romans until it was ceded to the Persians in the time of Jovian. In 640 A. D., the country came into the possession of the Arabs, and under them was in a very flourishing condition. In fact, it was not until the Turkish occupation under Sultan Selim in 1515 that it began to sink into the desert state in which it now is.



coast of Syria, receiving en route the tributes of the Phœnician and Greek kings of Cyprus, and the Philistine, Moabite, and Israelite rulers.

The Egyptians did not long remain quiet after the departure of the main body of the Assyrian army, for Tirhakah returned from the Upper Nile, and the Assyrian king had once more to prepare for a campaign in the Nile valley. During his absence with the main body of the army in Egypt in the previous year, a revolt had been raised in Nineveh; so the king, to guard against the repetition, crowned Assur-bani-pal, the eldest of his four sons, king, and placed him on the throne, to rule in Nineveh, 12th Iyyar (April), 669. Two years later, during the campaign, on 12th Marchesvan (October), the warlike Esar-haddon died with the army. Assur-bani-pal had all the ambition, but he lacked the genius of his father. He was a generous patron of arts and letters, and his reign was the culminating point of Assyrian splendor. He continued the Egyptian war, drove Tirhakah from Memphis to Thebes, which city he captured and stripped of its treasures. Phœnicia was next invaded, and Tyre captured, after a siege lasting some months. The empire was now shaken by one of the most serious revolts raised against the government.\* Assur-bani-pal appointed his brother, Samas-sum-yukin (the Saosduchinos of the Canon of Ptolemy) viceroy of Babylon, who, taking advantage of the absence of the Assyrian armies in various lands, rose in revolt,

DIVISION I  
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CIVILIZA-  
TION  
ASSYRIA

**Egypt  
Revolts**

**Revolt  
of Prov-  
inces Fa-  
tal to the  
Great  
Empire**

\*The government during the early and middle empires was a pure despotism and rule by force of conquest, held together by the obligations of tribute and homage; but no centralization existed. In the reign of Tiglath-pileser II, an extensive system of central government with the accompaniment of bureaucracy was introduced. In conquered lands the native rulers were either removed and replaced by nominees from the Assyrian court, or a resident ambassador placed in the court. Tributary cities were ruled by prefects (pikhate) and sub-prefects. Revenue was levied by collectors from all towns and districts, and an annual present from the native princes. In home government the Assyrians modeled their system on that of Babylonia. Taxes were levied on all produce from towns and villages, and tithes for the temple revenues. Special taxes were levied for the army, the river flotilla, and the maintenance of the royal roadways. Justice was administered by appointed judges, the courts being held in the temples or in the city gate, with the right of direct appeal to the king. The king had absolute power over life and death, and offenders were treated with the greatest cruelty; impalement, decapitation, mutilation, and burning by fire were the punishments inflicted. The king was feudal lord of all land, and could grant or take away any estates except those of the temples. Public works were carried out by corvee (forced bands of laborers) and captive labor, provisions for the workmen being provided by the state.

**Govern-  
ment of  
Assyria**

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ASSYRIA

aided, by the Elamites, Arabs, and Egyptians. The revolt lasted more than five years, and at last Babylon, Borsippa, Sippara, and Cuthah were besieged and taken, and fire, sword, and pestilence spread through the land. The rebellious prince burned himself in his palace with many of his followers.

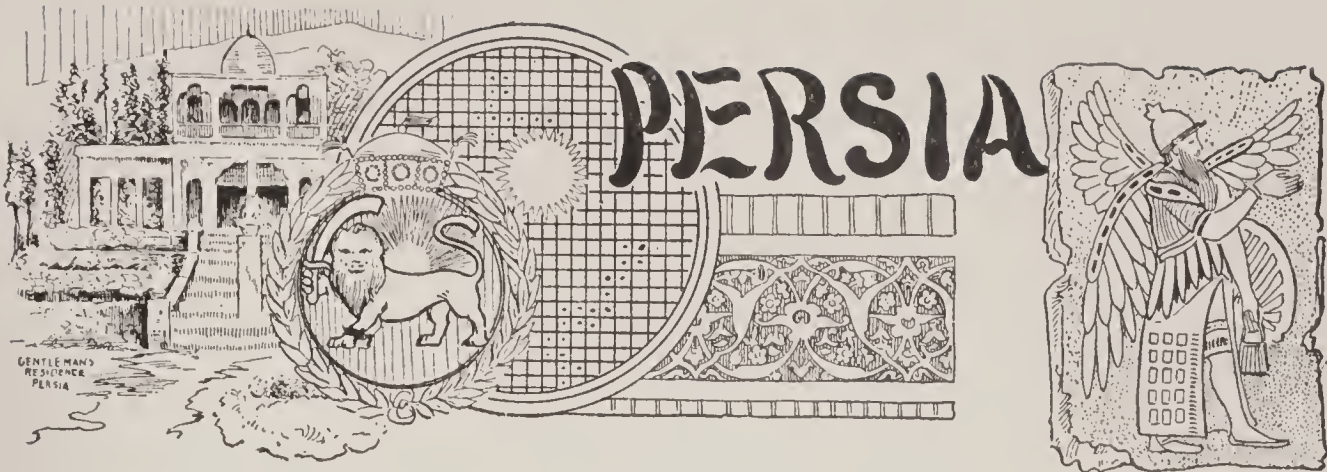
This revolt, however, shook the foundations of the empire, and soon the vast fabric began to totter. Egypt declared her independence, Syria was in revolt, Elam (Persia) and the northeastern provinces refused tribute, and Kandalanu, the new viceroy of Babylon, proclaimed himself king, while his successor Nabopolassar, son of Nebuchadnezzar, openly threw off all semblance of his allegiance, and declared himself king. Assur-etil-iliyukinni succeeded his father about 640. He rebuilt the palace of Calah, and bricks bearing his inscriptions have been found there.

The  
 Empire  
 Falls

The last Assyrian king was Essar-haddon II. During his reign a league for its destruction was formed between Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, and Cyaxares, king of Media, which was strengthened by the marriage of Nebuchadnezzar, son of the former, to Nitocris, daughter of the latter. The war and siege are said to have been interrupted by an invasion of the Scythians, which drew off Cyaxares; but at length Nineveh was taken and destroyed about 605 B. C. In the time of Darius Hystaspes, Assyria rebelled without success in conjunction with Media. In the time of Herodotus, the capital had ceased to exist; and when Xenophon passed it, the very name was forgotten, though he testifies to the extent of the deserted city, and asserts that the walls were 150 feet high.

Becomes  
 a  
 Province  
 606 B. C.

Assyria became a Median province 606 B. C., and afterward, in conjunction with Babylonia, formed one of the satrapies of the Persian empire. In 331 B. C., at Gaugamela, near Arbela, in Assyria, Alexander defeated Darius Codomannus. In 312 B. C., Assyria became part of the kingdom of the Seleucidæ, whose capital was Seleucia, on the Tigris. It was afterward subject to the Parthian kings, whose capital was Ctesiphon, and was more than once temporarily in possession of the Romans. When the Persian monarchy of the Sassanides was destroyed by the successors of Mohammed, Assyria was subject to the caliphs. Their seat was Bagdad from 762 A. D. to 1258. It has been under the Turks since 1638, at which period it was wrested from the Persians. This country is now almost a desert.



## THE HISTORY OF PERSIA

ALSO OF MEDIA, PARTHIA, AND ARMENIA

[*Authorities*: Goldsmid's *Eastern Persia* (1876); Arnold's *Through Persia* (1876); Wills's *In the Land of the Lion and the Sun* (1883), and *Persia as It Is* (1886); Benjamin's *Persia and the Persians* (1886); Hon. G. Curzon's *Persia and the Persian Question* (1891); and Morier's *Hajji Baba*; Khanikoff's *Ethnographie de la Perse* (1866); Madame Dieulafoy's *La Perse, la Chaldée, et la Susiane*; Barbier de Maynard, *Dictionnaire Géographique, Historique, et Littéraire de la Perse* (1861); Schwabe, *Bibliographie de la Perse* (1876); and German works by Petermann (1861), Polak (1865), Vambéry (1867), Stolze and Andreas (1885), and Brunnhofer (1889). See also the histories by Sir John Malcolm (2d ed. 1828), R. G. Watson (1866), and Clements Markham (1874); Rawlinson's *The Seventh Great Oriental Monarchy* (1876); and German works by Justi (1879), Nöldeke (1887), and Gutschmid (1888).]



**P**

ERSIA is a country of Western Asia, lying between Transcaucasian Russia, the Caspian, and Russian Central Asia on the north; Afghanistan and Baluchistan on the east; the Persian Gulf on the south; and Asiatic Turkey on the west.

The original country of the Persians occupied a small portion of modern Persia to the north of the Persian Gulf. After being under the Assyrians and next under the Medes, Cyrus (559–529 B. C.), by conquering and uniting Media, Babylonia, Lydia, and Asia Minor, became the founder of the Persian empire. The empire was further extended by his son and successor Cambyses (B. C. 529–522), who conquered Tyre, Cyprus, and Egypt; and by Darius I, who subdued Thrace, Macedonia, and a small part of India. His son, Xerxes (B. C. 486–465), reduced Egypt, which had revolted under his father, and also continued the war against the European Greeks, but was defeated on the field of Marathon\* and at Sala-

**Persian  
Empire  
Founded**

\* Marathon, a village on the east coast of ancient Attica, twenty-two miles northeast of Athens, long supposed to be the modern *Marathona*. It stood in a plain six miles

**Marathon**

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 PERSIA

mis \* (480 B. C.), and obliged to defend himself against their attacks in a disastrous war.

Artaxerxes I (B. C. 465–425) had a long and comparatively peaceful reign. He was followed by Darius II, Artaxerxes II (Mnemon), Artaxerxes III (Ochus), and Darius (Codomannus) (B. C. 338–330), the last of this dynasty. He was defeated by Alexander the Great in three battles, lost his life, and the empire passed into the hands of his conqueror.

Under  
 Parthia

On the dissolution of the Macedonian empire, 323 B. C., Persia ultimately fell to Seleucus and his successors, the Seleucidæ, B. C. 312. They reigned for 76 years, when the last Seleucus was defeated by Arsaces I, the founder of the dynasty of the Arsacidæ, and of the Parthian empire, of which Persia formed a portion, and which lasted until 226 A. D. The supremacy was then recovered by Persia, and later the sovereignty to all Central Asia was obtained.

long and from three to one and one-half miles broad, with a background of mountains in the west, and a marsh both on the north and south; eastward it reached the sea — “The mountains look on Marathon, and Marathon looks on the sea.” Recent investigations identify the historic village with that of Brana, nearly two and one-half miles to the south, and locate the battle in the plain between the mountain Stavrokoraki and the sea, nearly three miles northeast of Brana. The name of Marathon is gloriously memorable as the scene of the great defeat of the Persian hordes of Darius by the Greeks under Miltiades (490 B. C.) — one of the decisive battles of the world.

Salamis

\* Salamis (now *Koluri*) is an irregularly shaped mountainous island of Greece, off the coast of Attica, and forming with it the Bay of Eleusis. Its area is about thirty-five square miles. In ancient times its two principal towns, Old and New Salamis, lay, the former on the south, the latter on the northeast coast. Salamis was an independent state till about 620 B. C., when it fell, first to Megar, next to Athens through the policy of Solon. Its name is ever memorable from the great naval battle between the Greeks and Persians, fought (480 B. C.), a few days after the battle of Thermopylæ, in the narrow strait between the east coast of Salamis and the west coast of Attica. The Greek fleet of 366 triremes was drawn up at the entrance of the bay forming the harbor of New Salamis, the Athenian contingent under Themistocles, the Corinthian under Adimantus, while the Spartan Eurybiades commanded the whole. Great dissensions prevailed among the Greek leaders, which would probably have led to a general break-up had not Themistocles by a stratagem induced Xerxes, king of the Persians, to bring up his fleet, and give immediate battle to the Greeks. Xerxes drew up his ships, numbering 1,200 triremes and 3,000 smaller vessels, during the night previous to the battle, opposite the Greek fleet, along the coast of Attica, almost completely blocking up both entrances to the straits; and confident of victory he took his seat on a throne erected on a lofty height on the Attic coast, almost opposite New Salamis. Both Greeks and Persians fought with great bravery, but the latter were entirely defeated, their unwieldy fleet losing all advantage of numbers in the narrow space. Both the order and incidents of the battle are obscure, but the issue is clear enough. The loss of the Greeks is said to have been 40, and that of the Persians 200 ships, exclusive of those which were captured.

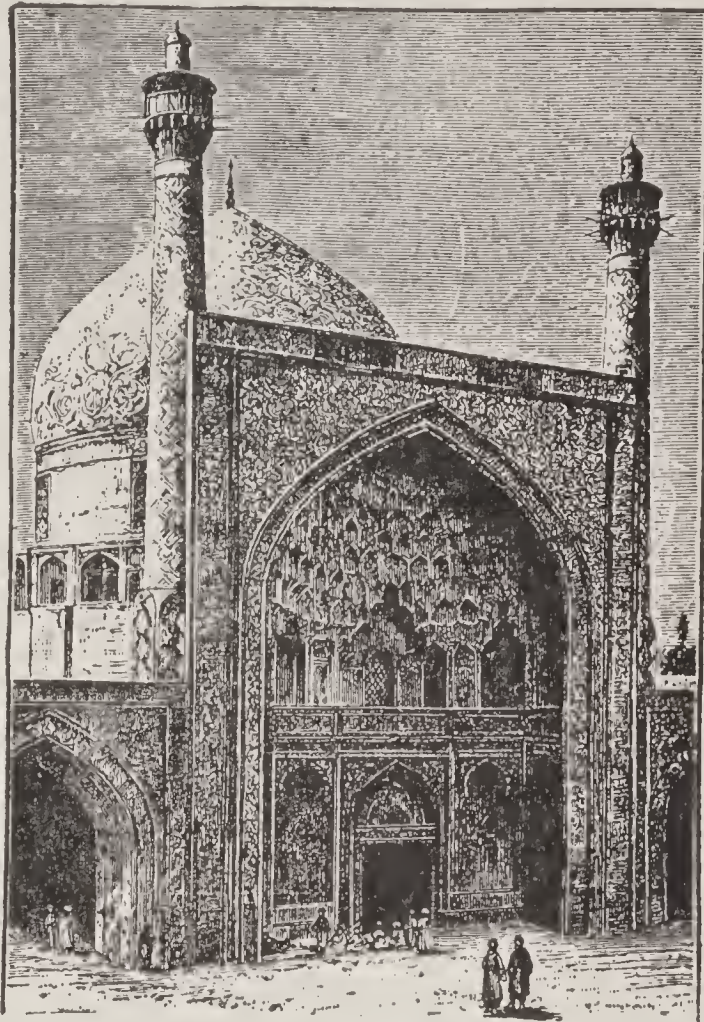
The next dynasty, that of the Sasanidæ, reigned for about 417 years. The reign of Sapor II, called the Great, and that of Chosroes I were the most notable. The latter extended the Persian empire from the Mediterranean to the Indus, and from the Jaxartes to Arabia and the confines of Egypt. His successor Chosroes II, 591-628, made extensive conquests, but lost them again in the reign of the Byzantine emperor, Heraclius.

Numerous revolutions followed until Yesdigerd III, a nephew of Chosroes II, ascended the throne in 632 A. D., at the age of sixteen. He was attacked and defeated by Caliph Omar five years later, and Persia became for more than 150 years a province of the Mohammedan empire.

The Arabian conquest had a deep influence on Persian life, as well as on the language and religion. The old Persian religion was given up in favor of Mohammedanism. About the beginning of the ninth century the Persian territories began to be broken up by numerous petty states. The Seljuks, a Turkish dynasty, first became powerful about 1037,

and extended its dominion over several Persian provinces. Melek-Shah, the most powerful of them, conquered also Georgia, Syria, and Asia Minor. Through Ghengis Khan the Tartars and Mongols became dominant in Persia, and they preserved this ascendancy until the beginning of the thirteenth century. Tamerlane appeared in 1387 at the head of a new horde of Mongols, and conquered Persia. The death of this famous conqueror in 1405 was followed by the downfall of the Mongol dominion in Persia, and the Turkomans succeeded, and were masters for 100 years. They in turn were succeeded by the Sufi dynasty, 1501-1736.

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION  
PERSIA



GATEWAY OF MASJID SHAH, ISPAHAN.

Under  
the Mo-  
hammed-  
ans

Rule of  
Tamer-  
lane

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 PERSIA

The first sovereign of this dynasty, Ismail-Sufi, pretended to be descended from Ali, the son-in-law of Mohammed.

Under Shah Soliman (1666-94), the empire declined, and entirely sank under his son, Hussein. A period of revolt and anarchy followed until Kuli Khan ascended the throne in 1736, and restored Persia to her former prominence by successful wars and a strong government. This ruler was murdered in 1747 by his commander, and the empire was again thrown into confusion. Kerim Khan succeeded, after a long period of anarchy, in making himself master of the whole of western Iran, or modern Persia.\* After his death in 1779, new disturbances arose, and continued for fifteen years.

At War  
 with  
 Russia  
 and  
 Turkey

The succeeding monarch's reign was in part taken up with disastrous wars with Russia and Turkey. In 1813 Russia secured a cession of all the possessions north of Armenia, and in 1828 a part of Armenia. Mehemet Shah became monarch in 1834, and under his reign Persia grew constantly weaker, and Russian influence in the country constantly greater. He died in 1848, and was succeeded by his son Nassr-ed-Din, the present shah. He had to suppress a number of insurrections, and in 1851 a serious rebellion of the pure Persian party in Khorassan, who refused obedience to the Kajar dynasty on religious grounds. In May, 1852, he annexed the sultanate of Herat, but was compelled by the British to relinquish it, and a second insurrection in 1853 resulted in the landing of a British force on the Persian Gulf, the capture of the seaport town Bushire, in 1857. Persia has since come into possession of portions of territory formerly belonging to Oman, Afghanistan,

Govern-  
 ment of  
 Persia

\*The form of government of Persia is in its most important features similar to that of Turkey. All the laws are based on the precepts of the Koran, and though the power of the shah is absolute, it is only in so far as it is not opposed to the accepted doctrine of the Mohammedan religion as laid down in the sacred book of the Prophet, his oral commentaries and sayings, and his interpretation of the same by his successors and the high priesthood. The shah is regarded as vicegerent of the Prophet, and it is as such that he claims implicit obedience. Under him the executive government is carried on. The ministry formerly consisted of but two high functionaries, a grand vizier and a lord treasurer; but in more recent times it was divided into several departments after European fashion. The chief portfolios are minister of foreign affairs, minister of the interior, minister of war, and minister of finance. Other departments represented under the ministry are treasurer, the customs, justice, commerce, construction of telegraphs, mines, forts, religious endowments, and the press. The kingdom is divided into twenty-two large and ten small provinces, which are governed by governors-general, who are directly responsible to the central government.

and Baluchistan. The northeastern boundary between Persian and Russian territory beyond the Caspian, after remaining long uncertain, was settled in 1881. Railways and electric telegraph have been introduced into the country, and an effective postal service has been established. The Shah visited Europe in 1873, and again in 1889.

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 MEDIA

### MEDIA.

MEDIA, in ancient times, was the name of the northwestern part of Persia lying between the Caspian Sea and Parthia on the east and Assyria and Armenia on the west. They were at first people of a warlike race, and noted for their horsemanship. The Median tribes, who seemed to have been in part subject to the king of Assyria, began about 1700 B. C. to be cemented together. Their power continued to grow stronger, and finally they subdued the Persians, but were defeated by the Assyrians. Cyaxares, the third ruler of the Medes, began a war against the Assyrians, but it was interrupted by an invasion of Media by the Scythians. An alliance was formed with Nabopolassar, king of Babylon, and the Assyrian empire was overthrown in 607 B. C. The northern provinces of Assyria were annexed, and Cyaxares began war against Lydia, but the eclipse of 585 B. C. terrified both parties into peace. Cyaxares was succeeded by his son Astyages, against whom the Persians under Cyrus revolted successfully, and the Median king was deposed B. C. 550. From this time on the two nations are spoken of as Persians. Ecbatana, the former capital of Media, became the summer residence of the Persian kings. After the death of Alexander the Great, 324 B. C., the northwestern portion of Media became a separate kingdom, which existed until the time of Augustus. The other portion under the name of Great Media formed part of the Syrian monarchy. In 147 B. C. Mithridates took the kingdom of Lydia from the Medes, and annexed it to the Parthian empire. About 36 B. C., it had a king of its own named Artavases, against whom and his ally, Phraates IV, Marc Anthony engaged in a disastrous campaign. Under the Sassanian dynasty the whole of Media was united to Persia.

Persia  
 Conquers  
 Media

DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

PARTHIA

## PARTHIA.

Parthia's  
Masters

PARTHIA, anciently a district in what is now northern Persia, lay between Media on the west and Bactria on the east, was separated from the Caspian Sea on the north by the savage land of Hyrcania, and was bordered on the south by the Iranian deserts. The Parthians were of Scythian descent, immigrants and nomads, who eventually adopted the Median dress and a semi-Aryan speech. Their armies were made up principally of slaves, commanded by their masters, the aristocratic nucleus of the Parthian nation. Parthia was subject successively to the Assyrians, the Medes, Persians, Greeks (Alexander the Great and his generals), and the Seleucidæ of Syria. About 250 B. C., a chief named Arsaces founded an independent kingdom in Hyrcania; his brother and successor, Tiridates, established himself in Parthia in 241 B. C. But the early kings of Parthia had much ado to maintain their positions against their suzerains, the Seleucid "great kings;" and it was not until Mithridates I (171-138 B. C.) ascended the throne, and had subdued Bactria, Media, and Babylonia, that the Parthian princes shook off completely the Syrian (Greek) yoke and became independent.

Roman  
Invasion  
of Par-  
thia

This king made Parthia supreme in Iran. He greatly strengthened his power by resting it in great part upon the Magi and the ancient creed of Zoroaster. In the reign of his successor the Seleucid king made a determined effort to recover the lost provinces in Iran, but the expedition cost him his life and his army (129 B. C.). No sooner was this enemy disposed of than another and more formidable foe appeared in the east—the Scythians. They defeated and slew (128 B. C.) Phraates, king of Parthia, levied tribute from his kingdom, and established themselves within its borders. During the first half of the first century the Parthian kings, by interfering in the affairs of Armenia, first came into contact with the Romans. The unprovoked invasion of Mesopotamia by Crassus (53 B. C.), his disastrous defeat, and his death make the first act in the drama of real contest that then ensued between Rome and Parthia. The remaining acts were the conquest of Syria and Palestine by Parthia (40-38); the disastrous campaign of Antony in Armenia (36 B. C.); then, after a century and a half of dissensions in Parthia, mostly internal, the renewal of hostili-



ties by Trajan (115–117 A. D.); the brilliant campaign of Avidius Cassius (164–165); the capture of Ctesiphon by Severus (199) and his repulse before Atra (201); and the defeat of Macrinus, the Roman emperor, and his ignominious payment of fifty million denarii to his enemy (217–218). During nearly all this period the Euphrates was looked upon by both combatants as the frontier line between their respective empires. The Parthian capital was Ctesiphon, a suburb or twin-capital with Seleucia, all through the duel with Rome. The Parthian empire was overthrown in a battle fought in 224 (or 227) by Ardashir, a prince of Persia, a province of ancient Iran, who founded the subsequent dynasty of the Sassanides (see Persia). The Parthian kings during the most flourishing period of their power used Greek as their official language, adopted some of the Greek deities, and in other ways put themselves under the influence of Greek civilization. But the hold of this civilization grew weaker as time went on, and Greek ceased to be the official language in the second century A. D.

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 PARTHIA

### ARMENIA.

ARMENIA was at one time a nation in Asia extending from the Caspian Sea to Asia Minor, and northward to the Caucasus, and including districts now belonging to Russia, Persia, and Turkey. In ancient times it was an independent kingdom, but later belonged successively to the Assyrian, Median, and Persian empires. It repeatedly recovered its independence down to the Middle Ages, although with varying boundary. The Armenians have been known as a nation since the time of Herodotus, and probably earlier. Noah is said to have resided in Armenia when he left the ark, 2348 B. C.

It became the center of an empire under Tigranes, or Digran, extending from the Orontes to the Caspian. It was conquered by Alexander the Great in 325 B. C., but regained its independence about 190 B. C. Its king, Tigranes, son of the celebrated Mithridates, was defeated by the Romans under Lucullus and Pompey 69–66 B. C., but was left on the throne. From that time its fortunes were various under the Roman, Parthian, and Byzantine emperors, and the Persians, Saracens, and Turks. They became

Con-  
 quered  
 by Ro-  
 mans

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 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ARMENIA

converted to Christianity by St. Gregory the Enlightened, and since that time Armenia has been the bulwark of Christianity in Asia. Overrun by the Persian fire-worshippers, and after the fall of Persia by the Mohammedan caliphs of Bagdad, sometimes supported and sometimes abandoned by the Byzantine emperors, and a prey to internal dissensions, Armenia re-emerged in the ninth century into a state of some importance.

Subject to  
 Greeks  
 and  
 Turks

In 885 A. D., Aschod I ascended the throne with the permission of the caliph, and founded the third Armenian dynasty. He claimed descent from King David of Israel. In the eleventh century dissensions and internal strife began to weaken the country, until the Greeks seized part of the kingdom, while the Turks and Kurds made themselves masters of the rest. Only one or two of the native princes maintained a perilous independence. In the middle of the thirteenth century the whole of Armenia Major was conquered by the Mongols. Leon VI, last king of Armenia, was taken prisoner by the Saracens in 1375. In 1472 the eastern part of Armenia became a Persian province, and afterwards the western part fell into the hands of the Turkish sultan, Salim II. Shah Abbas, of Persia, in 1604, yielded Armenia to the Turks, and transported 22,000 Armenian families to Persia.

The subsequent history of Armenia is that of devastation by the Mongols and the hosts of Timur, and a long contest between the Ottoman sultan and Persia for the possession of that ancient kingdom.

Russia in  
 Armenia

At length Russia approached from the north, welcomed by the Armenians as a suzerain, preferable to either the Turks or the Persians. Even before this, Russia had interfered for the protection of the Armenian Christians. In 1827 the czar wrested from Persia the whole of the upper valley of Araxes. On the conclusion of peace between Russia and Turkey in 1829, when the Russians retired from Erzerum, a vast number of Armenian subjects of Turkey followed them, preferring to settle in Russian territory. At the close of the Russian-Turkish war, by the treaty of Berlin, 1878, Ardahan and Kars were ceded to Russia.

Sultan  
 Guarantees  
 in his  
 Asiatic  
 Possessions  
 by  
 Great  
 Britain

During the negotiations of the Berlin treaty, Great Britain entered into a secret compact with the sultan, guaranteeing Turkey the integrity of her Asiatic possessions on condition that Turkey should effect reforms in their administration, and protect

the Armenians from the Kurds and Circassians. The Turks, on the contrary, disregarded their part in this compact. An invasion of the Kurds in 1882 under their chief, Obeidullah, a vassal of Turkey, was especially destructive of life and property in Armenia.

The Porte, in 1890, appointed a special commission to inquire into the grievances of the Armenians, but from the very nature of its constitution it was impossible for any good to come of it. Later in the same year an order was issued by the Œcumenical synod closing all the orthodox Greek churches under the jurisdiction of the archbishops ruling provinces in European Turkey. This order was confirmed by the Porte. Early in 1893 the people revolted against Turkish oppression, and the American Christian College was held to be responsible, and several Christians were either put to death or sentenced to long terms of imprisonment.

In 1895 a terrible slaughter of Christian Armenians was committed by the wild Kurdish soldiery. Conflicts between the Christians and Mohammedans occurred throughout the year without any apparent intervention on the part of the sultan. Another massacre occurred in October in which several hundred Armenians were slain. This act called forth emphatic protests from Great Britain, France, and Russia ; but such is the complication in European politics that no one power is able to make an aggressive step in the matter, and of this situation the Sultan of Turkey is conscious. His acts, therefore, are in no way influenced by the protests of foreign powers.

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EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

ARMENIA



## THE HISTORY OF PALESTINE

ALSO OF SYRIA, PHENICIA, CARTHAGE, ASIA MINOR, AND ARABIA

[*Authorities: The Survey of Western Palestine; the Survey of Eastern Palestine; works of Major Conder, Tentwork in Palestine, Heth and Moab, Syrian Stone-Lore; H. A. Harper, The Bible and Modern Discoveries; Conder, Palestine. Palestine under the Moslems, by Guy le Strange (Palestine Exploration Fund), gives a historical and geographical account of the country, compiled exclusively from Moslem writers. Fritz Burckhardt, Reisen in Syrien und Palestina; Oscar Fraas, Aus dem Orient; E. Hull, Physical Geology and Geography of Arabia Petraea, Palestine (Mem. Palestine Exploration Society, 1880); Louis Lartet, Voyage d'Exploration à la Mer Morte; Canon Tristram, Land of Israel (2d ed. 1872); De Vogüe's Temple de Jerusalem; Besant and Palmer, Jerusalem, the City of Herod and Saladin.*]



Ances-  
tors of  
the Jews

**B**Y THE various names of Hebrews, Israelites, and Jews the most illustrious people of ancient times were known. They dwelt in the land then called Canaan. Their history is given in full in Holy Writ, and their rise, progress, decline, and fall is noted in detail. They were descended from Arphaxad, the son of Shem. Abraham, the sixth in descent from Eber, the grandson of Arphaxad, dwelt in Assyria, but removed into Canaan, or Palestine, with his family in order that the true religion of God might be preserved by them, his "chosen people," amid the corruptions of the idolaters by whom they were surrounded. This occurred about 2000 years B. C.

The  
"Prom-  
ised  
Land"

At that time the inhabitants of Mesopotamia and Syria appear to have been partly nomadic, wandering like the Tartars and Scythians. Abraham and his descendants sojourned in different parts of Canaan and Egypt until the time of their protracted residence in the latter country. Abraham at his death transmitted the inheritance of the "promised land" to his son Isaac; and

Isaac was succeeded in the patriarchate by his younger son, Jacob, also called Israel. In consequence of a famine in Canaan, Jacob, on the invitation of his son Joseph, who had become chief minister to the king of Egypt, went with all his family, numbering seventy souls, and obtained from Pharaoh permission to settle in the land of Goshen. Here the Hebrews resided, according to Exodus, for 430 years. According to the genealogical table of the Levites, in Exodus, however, their sojourn could not have lasted longer than 215 years. In fact, Josephus considered the 430 years to indicate the period from Abraham to the exodus. During the lifetime of Joseph, and probably for some generations afterward, the Hebrews were well treated and prosperous; but a new dynasty in Egypt, probably the nineteenth, arose, and they were reduced to relentless slavery.

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CIVILIZA-  
TION  
PALESTINE

A deliverer at length appeared in the person of Moses. The circumstances of the exodus about 1320 B. C., such as the ten plagues and the crossing of the Red Sea, are a source of much controversy, but the fact of the exodus is disputed only by the most pronounced sceptics.

Moses  
Delivers  
the Jews  
Out of  
Bondage

About this time they formed a community of several millions, divided into twelve tribes. Under the leadership of Moses they went forth into the wilderness, and from him they received the law of the ten commandments on Mount Sinai, and the whole polity by which they were to be governed as a people.

The Ten  
Com-  
mand-  
ments

A ceremonial of sacrifice was instituted, and Aaron, the elder brother of Moses, and his sons consecrated as a hereditary priesthood, the priestly functions falling to the tribe of Levi. The nation was established as a theocracy, and this principle, however often forgotten in times of repose, continued henceforward to be the inspiring idea of national unity throughout the frequent crises of Jewish history. The emigrants first settled at Kadesh on the southern borders of Palestine, where they remained for many years, this being the period spoken of in the Scriptures as the forty years' wandering in the wilderness. They now marched northward to find new settlements in Palestine, which they were obliged to take by force from the Canaanites.

Forty  
Years in  
the Wil-  
derness

Moses died before entering the promised land, and was succeeded as leader by Joshua, under whom the Israelites advanced to the conquest of the territories of the Canaanites west of Jordan. The

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 TION  
 PALESTINE

former inhabitants, however, were not entirely subjugated, and retained possession of a number of cities; and the twelve tribes settled in districts which were more or less cut off from one another, and which formed an exceedingly loose union of small states under tribal chiefs, at times hard pressed by neighboring people.

Ruled by  
 Judges

After the death of Joshua about 1220, a succession of judges, or military leaders, arose. About 1070 the Philistines, who inhabited the coast and the low lying plains west of the mountains of Judah,



INTERIOR, MOSQUE-EL-AKSA, JERUSALEM

had defeated the Israelites, and subjugated part of the country, when Samuel, the last judge in Israel, was inspired to declare to Saul, a Benjamite, his destiny to become king, and anointed him as such. Saul soon proved his fitness for the post by his successful leadership of the Israelites, and he continued to organize the forces of Israel, and to fight with varying success against their enemies until his disastrous defeat and death at Mount Gilboa, after which the power of the Philistines again predominated on the west side of the Jordan.

On the other side of the river the military skill of Abner still preserved the kingdom for Saul's son, Ishbosheth, and gradually reasserted with some success his authority in Ephraim and Benjamin. But in Judah, David, a native of Bethlehem, a warrior whom Saul's jealousy had driven into exile and alliance with the Philistines, and who had previously been anointed king in place of Saul, established a separate principality, the capital of which was at Hebron. For over a year a disastrous war was waged between the two Hebrew states, and ended only with the murder of Abner and Ishbosheth, all the tribes acknowledging David as king.

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David  
 Estab-  
 lished at  
 Hebron

David now transferred his residence from Hebron to Jebus, a fortified city which he wrested from the Canaanites, and called the city of David, afterward Jerusalem. He assailed and subdued the Philistines, Moabites, Edomites, Ammonites, and other surrounding nations until all the country from the northeast end of the Red Sea to Damascus acknowledged his authority. To this prosperous kingdom succeeded his son Solomon, B. C. 993 (by the long chronology, 1015). His reign, owing to the warlike reputation which the nation had acquired under David, was entirely peaceful. He had no military tendencies, and he took great pains to arrange the administration of the kingdom in an orderly way, and his wisdom as a ruler and judge became proverbial. His alliance with Tyre and Egypt enabled him to carry on an extensive and lucrative commerce. He built the celebrated temple in Jerusalem, and extended and improved the city.

Jerusa-  
 lem  
 Founded

Solo-  
 mon's  
 Peaceful  
 Reign

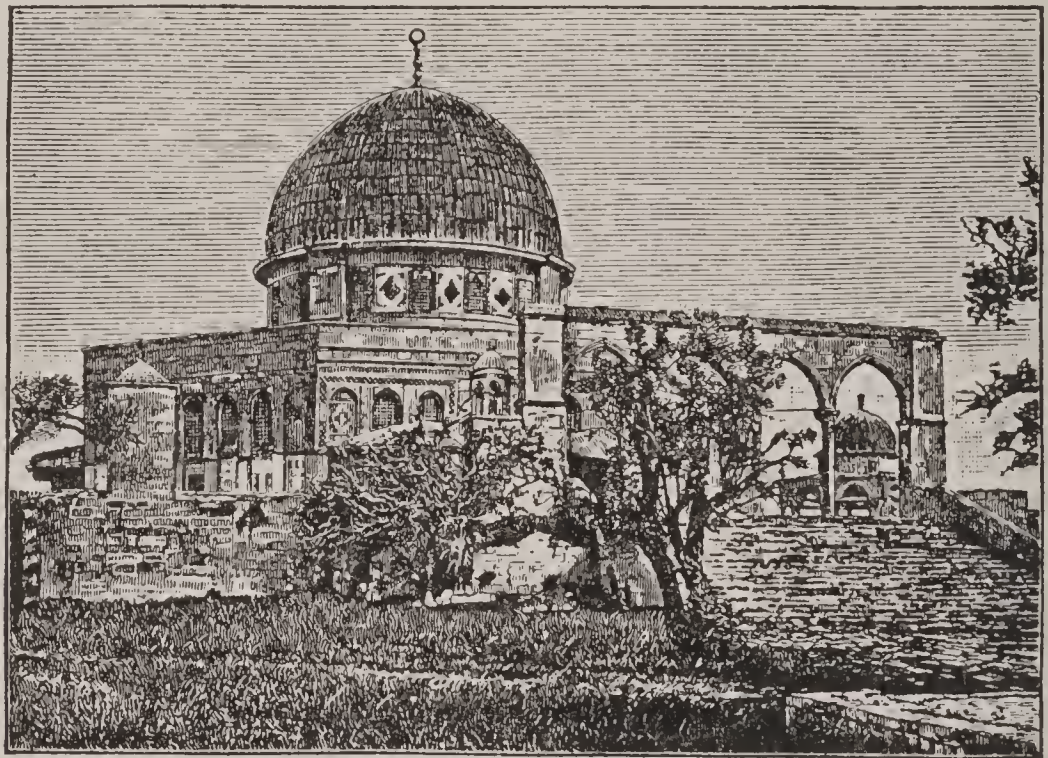
His son, Rehoboam, an insensible despot, ruled the Israelites with an iron rod. Ten of the tribes separated themselves from the government, and chose Jeroboam for their king. Palestine now became two kingdoms,—one Judah and the other Israel. A difference in religion was soon afterward introduced. That called the Samaritan, or Israelite, was embraced by the ten tribes, while Judah and the Benjamites kept to the ancient usages of their fathers. After an unsuccessful attempt to reconquer the kingdom of Israel, Rehoboam was forced by an invasion of Shishak of Egypt to give up the hope of uniting the two kingdoms.

In the next generation things had changed so much that Asa, king of Judah, was obliged to seek the help of Benhadad of Syria against king Baasha of Israel. Baasha was succeeded by Elah,

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Elijah  
 and  
 Elisha

Elah by Zimri, and Zimri by Omri, under whom the kingdom of Israel seems to have grown powerful. Omri established the capital of the kingdom at Samaria, and subjugated the Moabites. The son of Omri, Ahab, married Jezebel, princess of Tyre, an event which led to the extension of Phœnician idolatry in Israel. As Solomon had done previously, Ahab built a temple for the Syrian Baal in his capital. In his reign and subsequently, Elijah and Elisha played an important part. Ahab was slain at Ramoth Gilead in battle against the Syrians. He was succeeded by



MOSQUE OF OMAR, JERUSALEM

Israel De-  
 stroyed

Ahaziah and Joram. The latter was slain by Jehu, who had been anointed king by command of Elisha. Jehu made a clearance in Samaria of Syrian idolatry, destroyed the temple of Baal, and put the priests to death. Under Jeroboam, fourth in the line of Jehu, the kingdom reached a high degree of prosperity. After Jeroboam's death there was a quick succession of kings, but none of any significance. Under Pekah, the kingdom of Israel became tributary to the Assyrians. Hosea, Pekah's successor, made an ineffectual attempt to free the country from the Assyrian yoke, but finally, in 722, Samaria was captured by the Assyrian king, Sargon, the kingdom of Israel was virtually destroyed, and the chief inhabitants carried away and settled in Assyria and Media.

While the kingdom of Israel was flourishing, that of Judah had remained in the background. Rehoboam was succeeded by



Abijah, Asa, and Jehosaphat, the last a powerful and fortunate king. In the hope of putting an end to the war with the kingdom

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TION  
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DAVID'S TOWER, JERUSALEM

of Israel, Jehosaphat married his son Jehoram to Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab of Israel. After the murder of her son Ahaziah,

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TION

PALESTINE

Isaiah's  
Prophe-  
cies

by Jehu, Athaliah seized the supreme power in Jerusalem, and put to death her own grandchildren in order to destroy the line of David, Joash alone being miraculously saved. Athaliah was overthrown and put to death, and young Joash raised to the throne. Under Ahaz and Hezekiah, Isaiah delivered his sublime prophecies. Hezekiah was one of the greatest reforming kings. His influence extended over the kingdom of Israel, now in extreme decline. He was delivered from an invasion of Sennacherib, king of Assyria, by the destruction of the Assyrian army. Josiah, B. C. 641-610, was the last of the pious kings of Judah, and was killed in battle against Necho, king of Egypt. After him there was an uninterrupted succession of weak and incapable monarchs until under Zedekiah, 599-588, the capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, B. C. 588, put an end to the monarchy, Jerusalem being destroyed, and many of the people being carried captive to Babylon. (See Babylon — *Babylonish Captivity*, footnote, page 929.)

The prophet Jeremiah flourished from the reign of Josiah to the captivity.

Jews  
Subjects  
of Persia

In 538 B. C. Babylon was taken by Cyrus, king of Persia, who restored the Jews, and appointed Zerubbabel governor of Judea as a Persian province. A great majority of the Jews remained in Persia, however; only about 42,000 returned, and settled in the vicinity of Jerusalem. About 458 a second return of exiles was led from Persia by Ezra. Along with Nehemiah, who had been appointed Persian governor of Judea, Ezra promulgated the new law book, practically identical with the Pentateuch. From the time of Nehemiah the Jews continued to live in peace as Persian subjects, and enjoying their own institutions. When Alexander the Great overthrew the Persian empire, the Jews readily submitted on being promised the free exercise of their religion, B. C. 332.

After the division of Alexander's empire, Palestine was long a possession of the Ptolemies of Egypt, under whom it enjoyed a period of tranquillity. It was under the patronage of Ptolemy II, or Philadelphus, according to Greek tradition, that the Septuagint, or Greek version of the Old Testament Scriptures, was made. After the death of Ptolemy Philopator, Antiochus the Great, of Syria, became master of Palestine, B. C. 198. An Egyptian and an Assyrian party now arose among the Jews, and gave occasion to

civil dissensions, which led Antiochus IV to invade Judea, B. C. 170, when he took Judea by storm and slaughtered the inhabitants without distinction of age or sex, and endeavored to compel the Jews to give up their religion. At length under the leadership of the Maccabees family resistance arose, and after a struggle of nearly fourteen years was successful. In 135 B. C. John Hyrcanus completed the independence of Judea, and extended his dominion from the ancient limits to the Holy Land. During his reign the rival sects of the Pharisees and Sadducees became established.

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TION  
PALESTINE

In B. C. 63 Pompey, called in to help the Pharisees, took Jerusalem, and made the Jews tributary to the Romans. Latterly, Herod the Great, who entirely threw off Jewish manners, and cultivated the favor of the Romans, was recognized king of Judea by the Roman senate. It was in B. C. 4, the last year of his reign, that the birth of Christ took place at Bethlehem. Ten years later Judea and Samaria became Roman provinces under a procurator, who had his seat at Cæsarea, and was subordinate to the prefect of Syria.

Pompey  
Takes  
Jerusa-  
lem  
B. C. 63

Christ  
Born

Pontius Pilate, under whom Christ's public ministry and crucifixion occurred, was made procurator A. D. 26. For a time the country was again ruled by a king, Herod Agrippa, A. D. 41-44. He persecuted the Christians, and put the Apostle James to death. In A. D. 65 a party of the Jews revolted from the Roman yoke, and roused the whole of Palestine to insurrection. Vespasian was sent by Nero to suppress it, but before the war was finished, was called to the empire, and left his son Titus to conclude it. The result was the capture and destruction of Jerusalem A. D. 70, an event which deprived the Jews of the center of unity to which their national life had hitherto clung. After an insurrection headed by Bar Cochba, 132-135 A. D., Hadrian razed the remains of Jerusalem left by Titus, and erected in their place a Gentile city with the title Ælia Capitolina. The Jews were forbidden to enter the city under pain of death, and the name of Jerusalem was not revived until the time of Constantine.

Persecu-  
tion of  
Chris-  
tians  
Under  
Herod  
Agrippa

Henceforth the Jews became more and more a scattered people. Under the Roman emperors their treatment varied. Under the emperor Julian they ventured to make preparations for a new temple in Jerusalem. Although this attempt failed, they derived great advantages from their Sanhedrim, revived at Tiberius, and their

The Jews  
Scattered

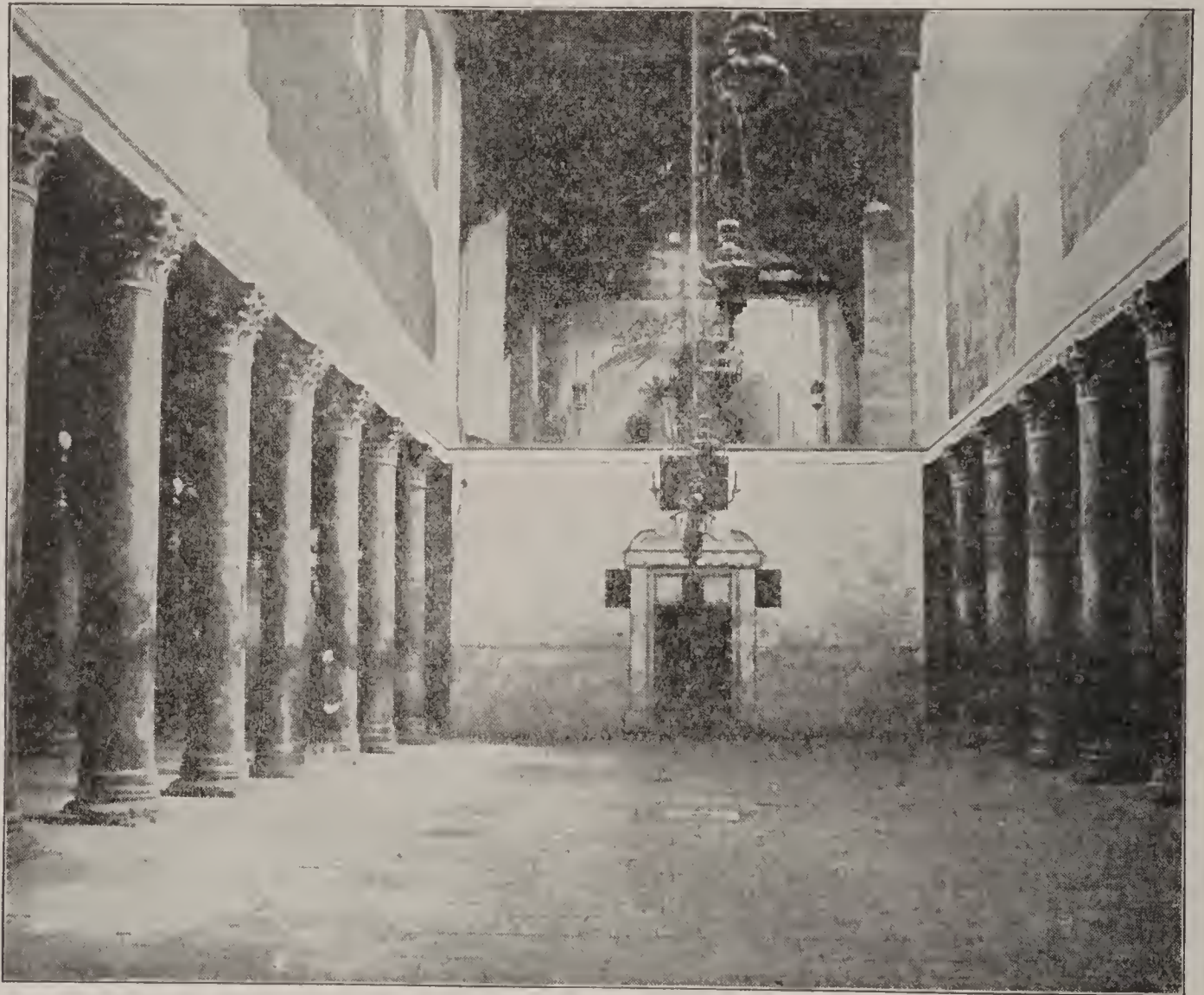
## DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## PALESTINE

Origin  
of the  
Talmud

patriarchates which were established, one at Tiberius for the western Jews, and the other for the Jews beyond the Euphrates, latterly at Bagdad. These two patriarchates became points of union, and flourishing Jewish academies arose in the East to serve as seminaries for their learned rabbins. One of the works of these scholars was the collection of the traditionary expositions of the Old Testament and additions to it, which was completed A. D. 500, and



CHAPEL OF ST. HELENA, BETHLEHEM

received under the name of the *Talmud* as the rule of faith by the scattered communities of Jews.

In time the scattered Jews made themselves masters of the commerce of the Old World. Even during the terrible persecutions, which they underwent through the cruelty of the Christians, they still continued prosperous in Christian countries. They lived more happily, however, among the Mohammedans, although they were distinguished by dishonorable badges and oppressed by heavy taxes. During the Moorish supremacy in Spain their prosperity was great and their learning flourishing. In the cities of France, Germany,

and Italy, after the eleventh century, particular streets and enclosed places were assigned to them as a sort of outcasts, in consequence of which, in the persecutions during the Crusades, thousands often fell victims at once to the popular fury. In Spain and Portugal during the fifteenth century, they yielded to force, and sometimes suffered themselves to be baptized; many were put to death by the Inquisition, and at last they were banished from the peninsula.

DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

PALESTINE



CIRCULAR TEMPLE, BAALBEK

It was only in the end of the eighteenth century that the Jews began to be put on a level with other citizens. France led the way after the Revolution, Prussia following. After repeated unsuccessful attempts to secure their admission to the British Parliament, it was at last effected in 1858. The most remarkable circumstance connected with modern Jews is the tenacity with which they cling to their ancient religion, and the purity in which they have on the whole retained their racial characteristics in the midst of alien people. In modern times they have produced some of the greatest names in letters and arts. The total number of Jews throughout the world is estimated at about 8,000,000, the greater number being in Austria-Hungary.

Jews  
Retain  
Ancient  
Religion

DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

PALESTINE

Becomes  
Part of  
Turkey

In the time of Christ, Palestine under the Romans was divided into the four provinces of Galilee, Samaria, Judea, and Perea. In 606 A. D. it was taken by the Saracens under Omar. The severities exercised against the Christians gave rise to the Crusades, but Mohammedanism prevailed. The Sultan of Egypt ruled it till 1517 when it was incorporated with the Turkish empire. For five hundred years Palestine has contributed little to the history of the



ARCH OF TRIUMPH AND COLONNADE

world. There has been no progress until the present generation. The ruins\* have become more ruinous, and the people are oppressed with taxes.

**Explora-  
tions in  
Palestine  
by Amer-  
ican and  
English  
Societies**

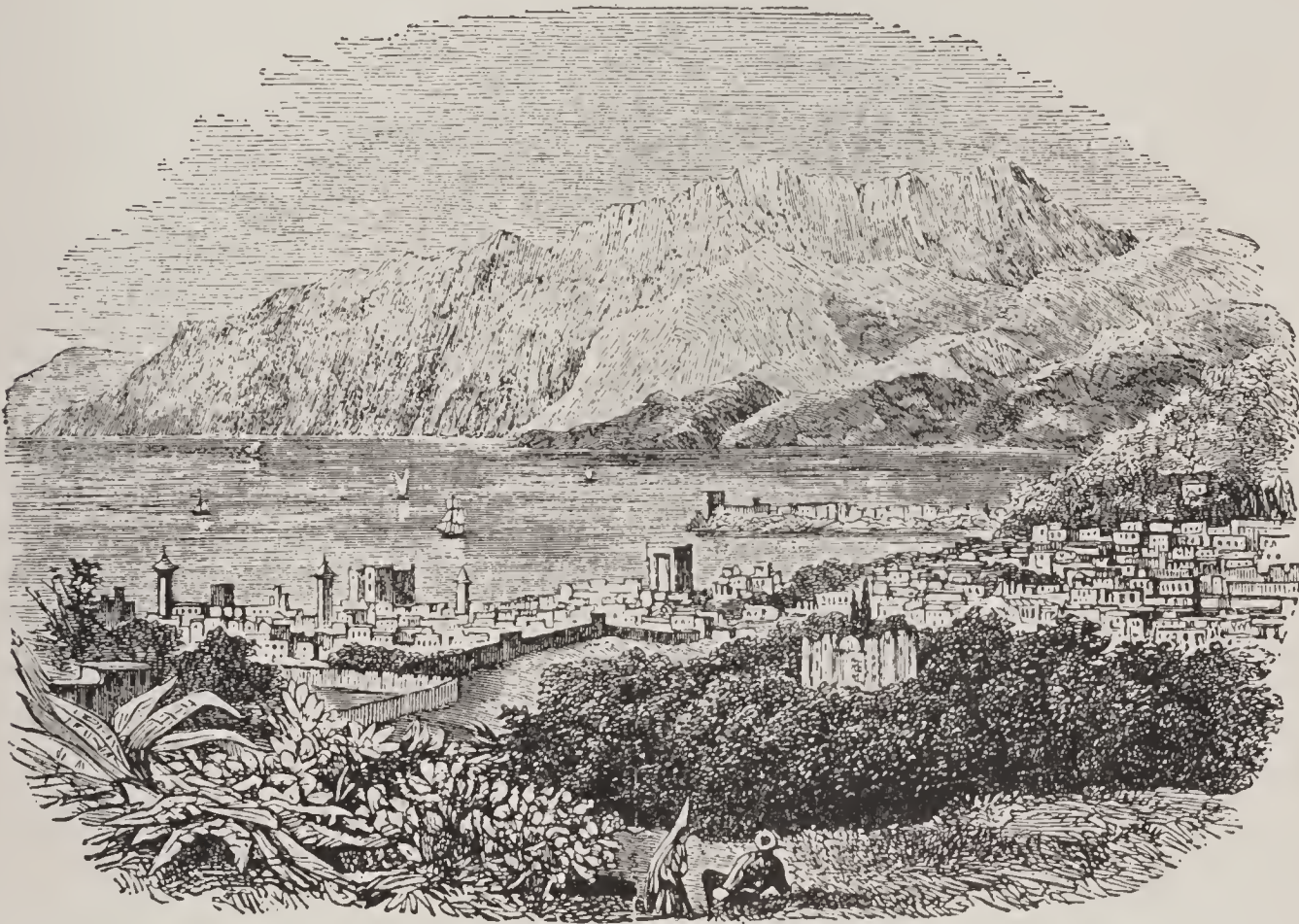
\* It is only within a comparatively recent period that explorations of Palestine have been carried out systematically and with some attempt at thoroughness. The most valuable results have been those achieved under the direction of the Palestine Exploration Fund, a society organized in 1865 for the purpose of making an exhaustive exploration, and an exact survey of the Holy Land. Five years later the American Palestine Exploration Society was organized, and it was agreed that the English society should confine itself to the western side of the Jordan and the American society to the eastern. A large and detailed map of the country has been published, and an immense amount of information regarding topography, natural history, etc., accumulated. The present population of the country is estimated at 650,000, the Arab element being probably the prevailing one, and the Arabian language generally in use.

## SYRIA.

SYRIA, a part of Asiatic Turkey, is bounded on the north by the Taurus Range, on the northeast by the Euphrates, on the east by the Syrian Desert, on the east and southeast by Arabia, on the southwest by Egypt, and on the west by the Mediterranean.

The earliest historical records of the people of Syria are those that relate to the histories of the Hittites, the Phœnicians, and the

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 SYRIA



BEYROUTH AND MOUNT LEBANON

Hebrews. In 1049 B. C. an alliance was made between David, king of Israel, and Hiram, king of Syria. Nine years later Syria was conquered by David. For several centuries the Hittites were supreme in northern Syria, and at times stretched southward as far as the hills of southern Palestine, yet they had most formidable rivals on both sides of them in Assyria and Egypt. The Phœnicians and Hebrews occupied the most prominent places in southern Syria. In addition to these, at different periods, small Aramæan principalities existed, such as Damascus, Hamath, Zobal, and similar petty states.

These, as well as most of southern Syria, were conquered during the eighth century B. C. by the kings of Assyria. The Jewish

David  
 Conquers  
 Syria

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 SYRIA

countries fell into the hands of the Babylonian kings in the seventh and sixth centuries. As previous to the ninth century B. C. Syria had been the battleground of the Egyptian and Hittite armies, so



FOUNTAIN OF THE MOSQUE, AT DAMASCUS

after that period it was, as a province of Assyria, involved in the struggle between that empire and Egypt.

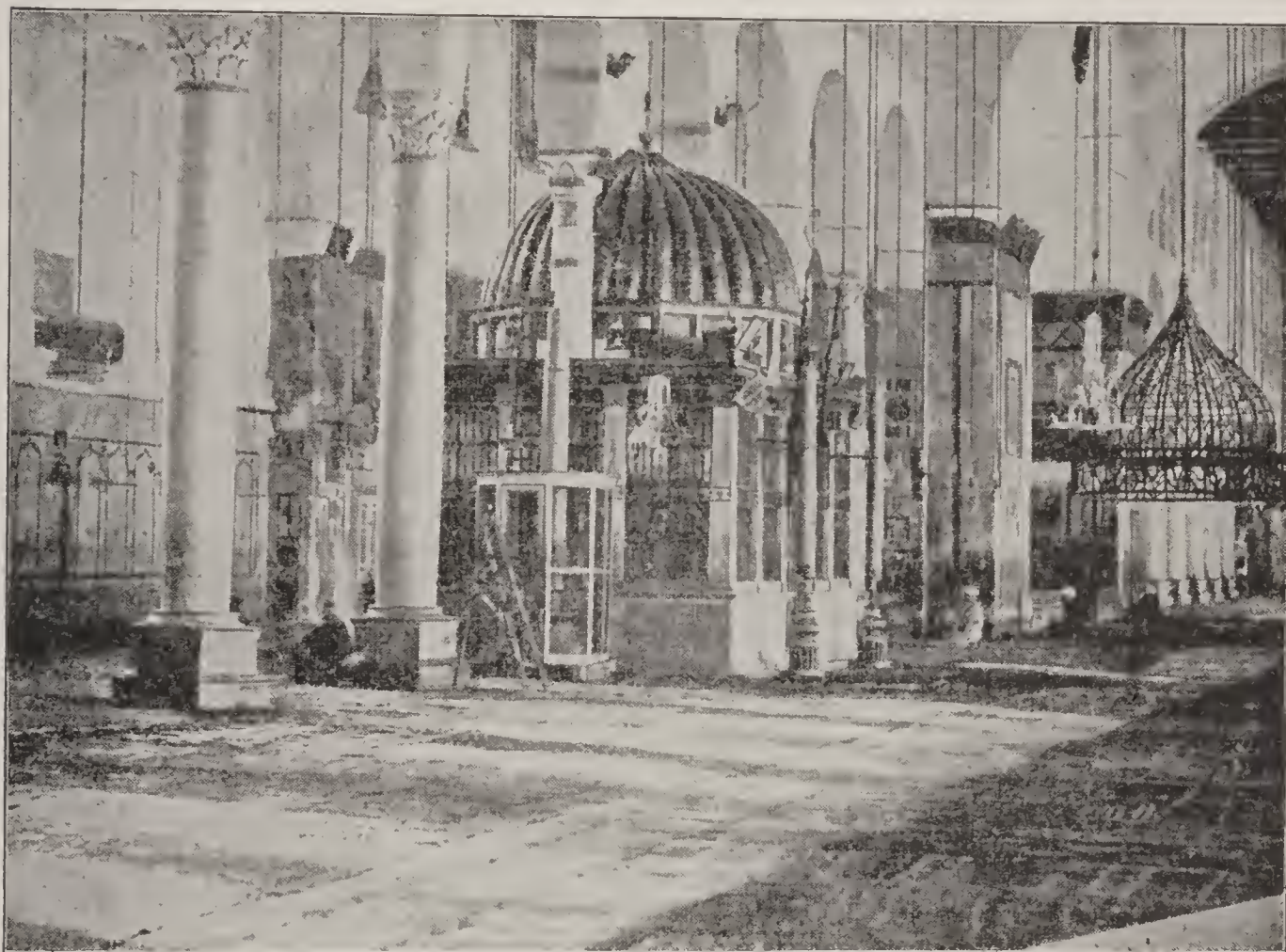
Greeks  
 Gain  
 Control

By the end of the sixth century B. C., Syria fell under the dominion of the Persian empire, and two centuries later it was conquered by Alexander of Macedon (333 B. C.). When his



empire broke to pieces the Seleucidæ made Antioch the capital of their Empire of Syria. From these people it passed into the hands of the Romans, for whom it was won by Pompey in 64 B. C. On the division of the Roman world Syria became a part of the Byzantine empire, and remained a province of it until its conquest by the Mohammedan Arabs in 636 A. D. It still continued to be prosperous under the Arabs and their successors,

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 TION  
 SYRIA



TOMB OF JOHN THE BAPTIST, GREAT MOSQUE AT DAMASCUS

the Egyptian sovereigns, in spite of the unsettled period of the Crusades.

The first severe blow it suffered came through the Mongols in 1260, and its ruin was completed when, in 1516, it passed from the Egyptians to the Ottoman Turks, its present rulers. The most important event in the history of modern Syria was its conquest by Mehemet Ali in 1833, and its restoration to the Turks in 1840 by the intervention of the great European powers; the war between the Druses and Maronites, which broke out in 1860, peace being restored in 1861 only by the active efforts of a French force sent out under the sanction of Turkey and the Western powers. In 1887 Syria was divided into two vilayets, one having Damascus

Part of  
 Turkey

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 TION  
 SYRIA

as its capital, and the other Beyrout. Lebanon, the chief city, has a special government, and is under a mutessarifat.

### PHŒNICIA

PHŒNICIA, in ancient times, was a country on the coast of Syria, stretching along the shores of the Mediterranean, and containing the celebrated cities of Tyre and Sidon. The emigration of these people to the coast of the Mediterranean belongs to prehistoric



TYRE

times. The settlement of Israel in Canaan did not produce any great or permanent change in Phœnicia. The tribes did not conquer Phœnicia, but occupied only a small portion of it, and the subsequent relations of Phœnicia and Asia were for the most part those of amity, intercourse, and reciprocal advantage. The wealth and power of Phœnicia rose from its command of the sea,\* and it

**Greatest  
 Maritime  
 Nation of  
 Ancient  
 Times**

\*The maritime knowledge and experience of Phœnicia led to the planting of numerous colonies in Cyprus, Rhodes, and the islands of the Ægean. The most celebrated of the colonies, however, was Carthage in the north of Africa, which extended its sway over the Spanish peninsula, and disputed with Rome the supremacy of the Mediterranean. From a very early period the Phœnicians occupied themselves in distant voyages, and their navigators are said to have circumnavigated Africa. The commerce of Tyre reached over the then known world. It traded in the produce of the whole known world, from the ivory

was not their policy to provoke any of the nations to the east of them. The country was afterward successively incorporated in the Assyrian, Babylonian, and Persian empires, but the cities retained more or less their independence. It was next conquered by Alexander the Great, and henceforth simply formed part of Syria.

DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

PHENICIA

## CARTHAGE

CARTHAGE, a city on the north coast of Africa, was the capital of one of the greatest empires of the ancient world. It was situated on a peninsula at the northeast corner of the region now known as Tunis, and was founded, most probably about the middle of the ninth century B. C., by Phœnicians who came either from Tyre or from the Tyrian settlement of Utica. The Carthaginians were thus of Semitic origin. They were an offshoot from the Canaanites, who occupied Palestine before the Jewish invasion, and whose language was closely akin to Hebrew.

Founded  
by Phœ-  
nicians

The city, called Carthage by the Romans, and Karchedon by the Greeks, was known to its own inhabitants as Kirjath-Hadeshath, or the New Town, to distinguish it from either Tyre or from the earlier Phœnician colony of Utica. Its history may be divided into three periods: the period before 509 B. C., when the first treaty was concluded with Rome; the period of the Græco-Phœnician wars in Sicily; and the period of the Punic wars, from 264 B. C. to 146 B. C.

Three  
Great  
Periods

Of the city's rise to power and opulence nothing is known. It does not come in view of the historian until the sixth century B. C., when it appears as a center of great commerce and the capital of extensive dominions, including part of the north coast of Africa, Sardinia, part of Sicily, and probably Malta. Corsica was acquired about the close of the century. A hegemony was established over Utica, Hadrumetum, Hippo, and the other Phœnician cities in Africa, from which a money tribute was received, while a tribute in kind was exacted from the neighboring African tribes. Besides

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and "bright iron," and ebony and cotton fabrics of India to the tin from Cornwall and Devonshire. As was the case in Canaan at the invasion, each Phœnician city was governed by a king or petty chief. The relation of Phœnicia to her colonies does not seem to have been very close, their religion being the strongest tie.

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 CARTHAGE

Early  
 Expedi-  
 tion of  
 Hanno

pure Canaanites, the Carthaginian population included a large number of Libyo-Phœnicians, or half-breeds, the offspring of unions of Phœnicians and Africans. These half-breeds were regarded with keen jealousy by the rulers of the city, and the famous expedition of Hanno, which took place as far as can be ascertained, toward the close of the sixth century B. C., was fitted out to transport them to distant settlements. There is in the library of Heidelberg, Germany, a Greek manuscript termed the "Periplus" (or Circumnavigation), which is said to be a translation of the account of his voyage placed by Hanno in the temple of Moloch at Carthage. According to the narrative, Hanno sailed beyond the pillars of Hercules, founded cities of the Libyo-Phœnicians; made his way up "a great river called Chretes" (probably the Senegal); and after having "sailed by streams of fire," came to a "bay which is called the Southern Horn," and which has been identified with Sherboro Sound, to the south of Sierra Leone. Scarcity of provisions prevented him from sailing farther to the south. About the same time Himileo is said to have explored parts of the northern coasts of Europe, but regarding this voyage we have no trustworthy information.

In 528 B. C., Carthage would have been destroyed in all likelihood by Cambyses but for the refusal of the Phœnicians, who formed part of his fleet, to act against their kinsmen.

By the first treaty between Carthage and Rome (509 B. C.), the Romans were restricted from sailing beyond the Fair Promontory (modern Cape Bon), — a provision probably designed to exclude them from Spain, with which Carthage had a great commerce, — while the Carthaginians were forbidden to injure any Latin city, even though it should not happen to be subject to Rome. A later treaty, of which the exact date is unknown, imposed harder conditions on the Romans, whom it debarred from trading in Africa and Sardinia, while it permitted Carthaginians to attack Latin cities not under Roman rule. It forbade them, however, to make any settlements in Italy.

Semitic  
 versus  
 Aryan  
 Races

From the beginning of the fifth century B. C. to the date of the city's downfall, the history of Carthage is the history of a struggle for supremacy between the Semitic and the Aryan races, a struggle waged first by the Canaanites and the Greeks, and then by the Canaanites and the Romans. The Græco-Phœnician wars were

fought for the possession of Sicily. About 480 B. C. Terillus, tyrant of Himera, on the north coast of that island, who had been driven out by Thero of Agrigentum, sought and obtained material assistance from the Carthaginians. Gelo, of Syracuse, came to the help of Thero. This international interference culminated in the great battle of Himera, in which the Greeks were victorious. Hamilcar's forces, according to Herodotus, consisted of 3,000 ships and 300,000 men,—Libyans, Phœnicians, Iberians, Ligurians, Helyci, Sardinians, and Corsicans. The Greeks, about 55,000 strong, met the invaders at Himera, where Hamilcar was slain and his army cut to pieces. This great victory is said to have been won on the same day as the battle of Salamis. Seventy years elapsed before the Carthaginians renewed the struggle. In 410 B. C. Hannibal, a grandson of Hamilcar, invaded Sicily with 100,000 men, and after massacreing the people of Selinus, captured Himera, and there offered up 3,000 captives as an expiatory sacrifice\* to the spirit of Hamilcar.

Another expedition was despatched from Carthage in 406 B. C., and in 396 B. C. Himileo blockaded Syracuse, the last of the great Hellenic cities in the island which remained unconquered. But pestilence having broken out among the besiegers, Dionysius, the tyrant of Syracuse, fell upon their camp, and only a fragment of their army escaped to Africa. The struggle went on until the death of Dionysius, success inclining now to one side, now to the other. Then there was peace for twenty years, during which the power of Carthage steadily waxed in Sicily. So formidable

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 CARTHAGE

Dio-  
 nysius  
 Defeats  
 Cartha-  
 ginians

\* Like other Canaanites, the Carthaginians practised a horrible form of fire-worship. Their chief god was Moloch or Baal-Hammon, who represented the destructive power of the sun. In his temple there burned a furnace into which human victims were cast. These were generally captives taken in war, but in times of extreme peril native Carthaginians were also sacrificed; when Agathocles besieged the city, it is said that 200 children belonging to the noblest families were slain to propitiate the god. The moon-goddess Ashtaroth, the Greek Astarte, was worshipped under the name of Tanist. Melkart, who corresponded to the Greek Hercules, was held in special honor, and missions with offerings were sent at regular intervals to his great temple at Tyre. A sea-god, whom the Greeks identified with Poseidon, was in all probability the same as the Philistine fishgod Dagon. Another deity named Esmun seems to have presided over healing. Religious honors were paid to deified heroes; to certain genii or spirits; to various animals, among them the lion, the bull, and the serpent; and to several of the Greek divinities, with whom the Carthaginians became acquainted in Sicily. There does not appear to have been an order of priests, the sacrificial rites being performed by the generals and the principal magistrates.

Religion

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EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

CARTHAGE

End of  
Grecian  
Wars  
Against  
Carthage

did she become, that in 344 the Syracusans appealed to Corinth, their mother-city, for aid against her. The Corinthians sent them 700 mercenaries under Timoleon. With 6,000 men Timoleon routed a host of 70,000 Carthaginians as they were attempting to cross the river Crimessus (339 B. C.); a second Greek victory followed, and the tide of Semitic invasion was rolled back. Carthage sued for peace, and the contest was not renewed until 309 B. C., when Syracuse, under the rule of the tyrant Agathocles, was rent by civil dissensions. Hard pressed at home, Agathocles formed the audacious design of falling on Carthage while her forces were mainly in Sicily. Eluding the Carthaginian fleet, he landed in Africa, gained victory after victory, and carried the war up to the walls of Carthage. But his presence being urgently required in Syracuse, he had to leave his son Archagathus in charge of the army. Archagathus proved incompetent. On the return of his father a mutiny broke out; Agathocles fled to Sicily, and the troops made peace with Carthage. The Græco-Phœnician wars came to an end with the Sicilian campaigns of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. That monarch, one of the greatest generals of antiquity, projected the conquest of Carthage, but wasted his strength in a futile contest with Rome, and after leading the Greeks of Sicily with varying fortune against the Carthaginians, was forced to quit the island in 276 B. C.

The first of what are known as the Punic Wars (from the Latin word *Punicus*, "Phœnician,"), began in 264 B. C. The conquest of southern Italy by Rome had brought face to face the two rivals for supremacy in the Mediterranean world. The Mamertines, a body of Campanian mercenaries who had served under Agathocles, sought and obtained Roman aid against Syracuse and Carthage. The Romans won two great sea-fights at Mylæ (260 B. C.) and at Ecnomus (256 B. C.), and Regulus carried the war into Africa, where he was defeated and his army almost annihilated by the Carthaginians under the command of the Spartan Xantippus (255 B. C.). In Sicily the Romans were for a time baffled by the consummate generalship of the great Hamilcar Barca, who defied all efforts to dislodge him from the stronghold of Eryx. But he received an adequate support from Carthage, and a naval victory won by Rome at the Ægates Islands brought the war to a close in 241 B. C. Carthage gave up all claim to Sicily, and paid

an indemnity of nearly four million dollars. But Hamilcar marched out of Eryx with all the honors of war. The Carthaginian mercenaries then mutinied, and were supported by the Libyan tribes. After a bloody struggle which lasted from 241 to 236 B. C., the rebellion was crushed by Hamilcar. That great general then determined to build up an empire in Spain which would compensate for the loss of Sicily, and furnish an admirable recruiting ground in the struggle with Rome, of which he foresaw the renewal. He crossed into Spain in 236 B. C., and before his death in 229 B. C., he had by arms and diplomacy extended the sway of Carthage over a great part of the peninsula. His work was ably carried on by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, who was remarkably successful in conciliating the Spaniards. Hasdrubal was assassinated in 221 B. C., when Carthage held all Spain up to the Ebro.

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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 CARTHAGE

On the death of Hasdrubal the troops chose as their leader Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, the greatest of all the Carthaginians and "the greatest captain that the world has seen." In 219 B. C., Hannibal captured the town of Saguntum, a city in alliance with Rome. The Romans, who had long been jealous of the progress their rivals had made in Spain, thereupon declared that the treaty was broken, and the second Punic War began.

It was, as Arnold has said, the war of a man with a nation; no other war shows so impressively what the genius of a single man can achieve. The campaigns of Hannibal are the most wonderful in all history. Here, however, it must suffice to say that he led his men from the Ebro to Italy; that he had himself in a great measure to create the far inferior forces with which, in battle after battle, at the Ticinus and the Trebia, at Trasimenus and at Cannae, he broke and drove the legionaries, the best soldiers of the ancient world; that he brought Rome to the verge of ruin, and that his victories, in all likelihood, would have been crowned by her capture had he been duly supported from home. But his countrymen were unworthy of the great Carthaginian. After having maintained himself in Italy for fifteen years, he was recalled in 203 B. C. In 202 B. C., Publius Cornelius Scipio invaded Africa, and won the battle of Zama. Peace was then concluded. The Carthaginians were forbidden to make war on any state without permission of the Romans. They were compelled to give up

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all war-ships except ten, and to pay an indemnity of ten thousand talents and an annual tribute of two hundred.

In the years between the second and third Punic Wars, Massinissa, king of Numidia, made repeated aggressions on Carthage. The Carthaginians appealed in vain for justice to the Romans, who had resolved on the destruction of the city; and who declared war in 149 B. C. Carthage fell in 146 B. C. It was taken by Publius Cornelius Scipio Æmilianus after a siege of two years. For six days the fighting went on in the streets of the city, the people, men and women, defending their houses with a fierce determination which recalls the resistance of the Jews in the siege of Jerusalem by Titus. The city was razed to the ground, and the country became a Roman province. At the time of the siege, Carthage is said to have had 700,000 inhabitants.

Carthage was to rise again as a Roman city, but her capture by Scipio closes her history as the capital of a Phœnician state, and the center of a vanished civilization. Our knowledge of that civilization is meager and vague in the extreme. And it must be remembered that what we do know of Carthage is derived from her implacable enemies. To the Greeks the Carthaginians seem to have been more repugnant than any other "barbarians." With the Romans, "Phœnician" was synonymous with all that is cruel and treacherous. Yet, were it not for Greek and Roman writers we should know nothing of Carthaginian history. In reading that history, wide allowance must be made for the fact that no Carthaginian version of it has come down to us. Still, even when that is done, it is hardly possible to follow with sympathetic interest the fortunes of Carthage apart from those of the great family of Barca. Her people were bold and skilful sailors, and the most industrious and enterprising of merchants. She produced several men of high practical ability, and one man of incomparable military genius. But her people had not the qualities of an imperial race. A nation of traders, they trusted in war principally to mercenaries; it was seldom that native Carthaginians, save in times of acute peril, formed any considerable part of the army. Their rule\* was pecul-

Consti-  
 tution

\*The constitution was oligarchical. The two chief magistrates were called by the Romans *suffetes*, a corruption of a Canaanite word corresponding to the Hebrew *Shophetim*, or judges. The *suffetes* were chosen from the members of certain distinguished families. The tenure of office is uncertain; some seem to have been elected



iarly oppressive, and their subjects were at all times ready to rise against them. In the struggle with the Greeks they committed the bloodiest atrocities. Their civilization seems to have been wholly material; they had apparently no artistic genius; their religion was the most hideous ever practised by a people emerged from barbarism. Their overthrow by Rome was, it can hardly be doubted, a gain to mankind. Still, it must never be forgotten that it was in this strange Canaanite people, "alone of barbarian nations, that Greece and Italy found real instructors, worthy rivals in commerce, policy, and warfare."

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 CARTHAGE

annually, others for life; but they could not lead an army or a fleet unless specially appointed to the command. The senate contained an inner council of a hundred, which seems to have been the chief executive power in the state. It exercised a jealous supervision over the generals, who had on returning to the city to submit reports of all their transactions to its members. There was also an assembly of the people, which seems, however, to have had very slight political influence. According to Aristotle, the state officials were unpaid. So far as can be ascertained, justice was administered by special courts. The oligarchy seems to have been invariably rent into factions, and corruption was rife during at least the later period of Carthaginian history. An immense revenue was necessary to maintain the navy and mercenaries. It was drawn from heavy customs duties levied on imported goods, from the tribute paid by other Phœnician cities and the subject African tribes, and from the rich mines worked by the state in Corsica and Spain. The contributions in kind were partly transmitted to Carthage, partly stored up in the provinces for the service of the army. The state could without difficulty send out a force of 100,000 troops. The first, which was defeated at Ecnomus, numbered 350 ships, and had 150,000 men on board. The commerce of Carthage was not confined to the Mediterranean ports. Her ships sailed as far west at least as the Azores, as far north as Britain and the Baltic; and she carried on an immense trade with the interior of Africa. Some of her caravans pushed across the Sahara to the basin of the Niger; others journeyed regularly between Thebes, in Egypt, and the Strait of Gibraltar, following a route with fixed stations for halting, which are carefully set down by Herodotus. Slaves, gold, ivory, and precious stones were the staple of the African trade. Wine, cattle, iron, fruit, etc., were imported from the Mediterranean countries. Spain and Sardinia furnished silver; Corsica, slaves; Britain, tin and copper; the Baltic, amber. A considerable overland trade was carried on through Spain with the Gallic tribes, as the Massilians would not allow trading stations to be established on the southern coast of Gaul.

\* The Carthaginians had no aptitude for art,—even their coins bear the impress of Greek design and workmanship,—and if they had a literature, it has perished. When the city was taken by Scipio, the contents of the libraries, which may have been principally Greek works, were dispersed and lost. A single book, a treatise on agriculture, ascribed to one Mago, was preserved and translated into Latin by order of the Roman senate. Cicero speaks of this work (*De Re Rustica*) as being in his day the standard authority on its subject. Himileo is said to have written an account of his voyage to the northwestern shores of Europe, and, according to Livy, Hannibal wrote a history of his own campaigns. A corrupt form of the Carthaginian or Canaanite language was spoken in parts of North Africa in the days of Augustine, who was struck with the close resemblance which it bore to Hebrew.

Art in  
 Carthage

## DIVISION I

EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## ASIA MINOR

## ASIA MINOR.

ASIA MINOR is the name of that portion of western Asia which projects from the main mass of the continent toward the west, between the Black Sea and the eastern basin of the Mediterranean. The northwestern extremity approaches so closely to Europe as to be separated from it only by two narrow straits, the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles.

**Ancient  
Divisions**

In ancient times Asia Minor comprised the Ionian colonies on the coast, the early seats of Greek civilization, and the countries of Mysia, Phrygia, Lydia, Caria, Bithynia, Pisidia, Pamphylia, Lycia, Paphlagonia, Cilicia, Cappadocia, Pontus, Armenia Minor, and the cities of Troy, Ephesus, and Smyrna.

**A Land  
of Strife**

In this land, from the obscure era of Semiramis (2000 years B. C.) to the time of Osman (about 1300 A. D.), the greatest conquerors of the world contended for supremacy. It was the scene of the wars of the Medes and Persians with the Scythians, of the Greeks with the Persians, of the Romans with Mithridates and the Parthians, of the Arabs, Seljuks, Monguls, and Osmanli Turks with the Byzantine Empire.

**Rise of  
Lydia**

It is remarkable that a country like Asia Minor, possessing such great natural advantages, and to a great extent so clearly limited by nature, can hardly be said to have any history of its own. It was never at any period united under one independent sovereign, but was always divided among a number of minor potentates, or constituted merely a subordinate portion of a more extensive empire, as under the Roman, Byzantine, and Turkish rule. Its western and northern shores were from a very early period occupied by Greek colonies, which gradually formed an almost unbroken chain of settlements along its coasts and islands from Rhodes to Trebizond, but these colonies exercised comparatively little influence upon the nations of the interior. The first historical event that can be considered as affecting the fortunes of the peninsula in general was the rise of the Lydian monarchy.

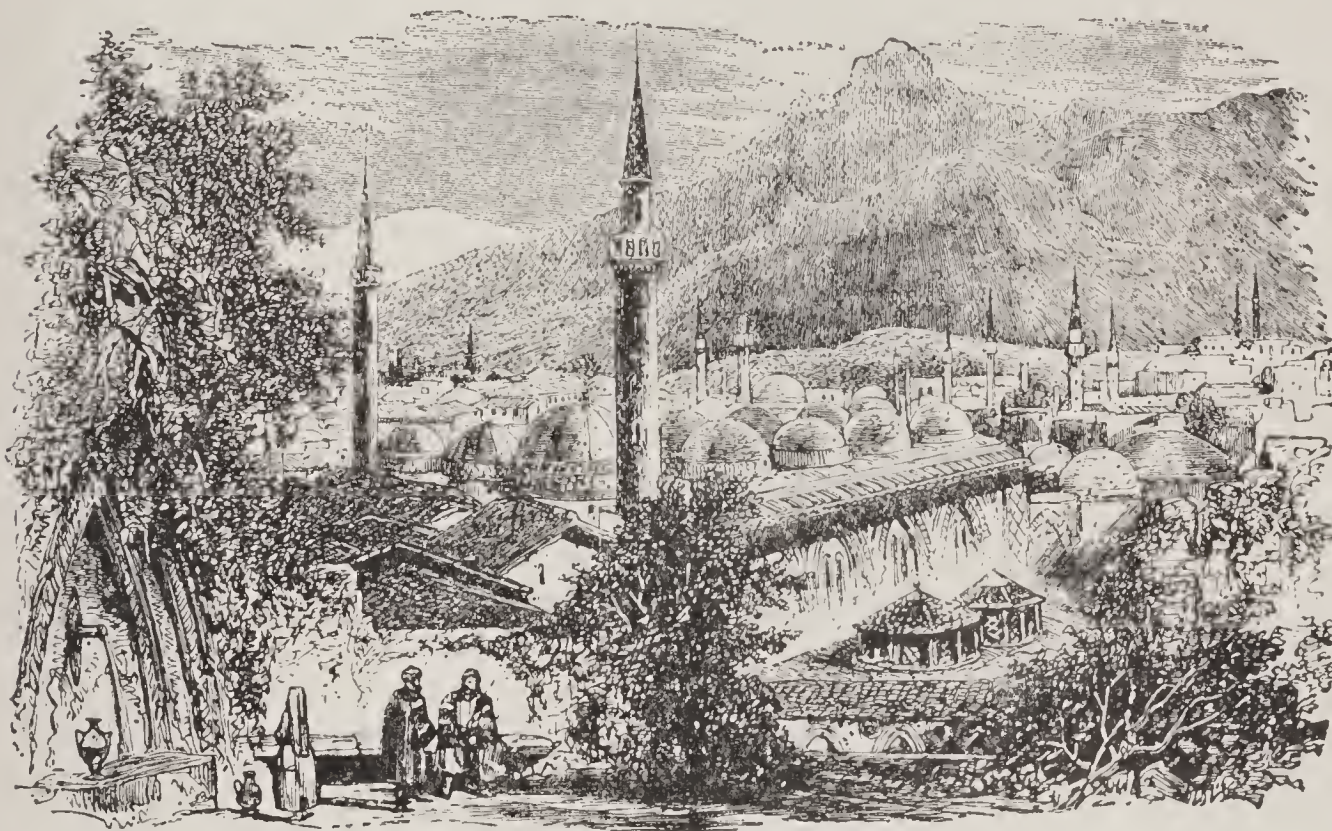
Lydia was divided from Persia by the river Halys. It attained its highest prosperity under the Mermnadæ dynasty, beginning with the half mythological Gyges, 716 B. C., and ending with Cræsus, 546 B. C., who was conquered by the Persians under Cyrus. During this period the whole of Asia Minor west of the Halys, except Lycia, was subjugated. The capital was Sardis.

Owing to the tribute exacted from the Greek cities, and also to the rich maritime trade which Lydia carried on, Crœsus, the king of that country, became the richest prince of his age. The city of Sardis was captured by Persia, and became the western capital of the Persian empire, and one of the causes of the Persian war was its burning by the Athenians. Upon the death of Alexander, Antigones gained possession of Lydia. Later Achæus proclaimed himself king, but was put to death by Antiochus. The country was presented to Eumenes by the Romans, and subsequently was made part of the Province of Asia.

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TION

ASIA MINOR

**Crœsus  
the  
Richest  
Prince**

BRUSA

From the fall of Lydia the whole of Asia Minor, from the frontiers of Syria to the Hellespont and the Bosphorus, continued for more than two centuries to form part of the Persian monarchy, until its overthrow by Alexander the Great, 333 B. C.

In the division of the Macedonian Empire, after the death of Alexander, Asia Minor became a chief object of attention among his generals, but was ultimately included in the dominions of Seleucus, and the greater part of the peninsula continued for a considerable period to be subject to the Seleucidan kings of Syria.

However, a small independent monarchy had been established at Pergamus soon after 280 B. C., and when the Romans entered Asia, and defeated Antiochus III at the battle of Magnesia, in 190

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 ASIA MINOR

B. c., they transferred a considerable part of his dominions to Eumenes, king of Pergamus, whose kingdom was thus extended to the Taurus. The monarchy of Pergamus thus continued until 130 B. c., when it was annexed to the Roman dominions, under the name of Province of Asia.

Bithynia  
 under  
 Mithri-  
 dates

Bithynia, however, still supported a separate king, as also Pontus, which for a short time rose under the great Mithridates to be a really formidable power; but after the defeat and death of Mithridates, in 63 B. c., the conquered part of his kingdom as well as that of Bithynia was annexed to Roman dominion, and though some petty dynasties were allowed to linger on until after the Roman Empire, the whole of Asia Minor was virtually subject to Rome from the time of Augustus. There ensued a long period of practical prosperity under the Roman and Byzantine empires, during which it suffered less than almost any other part of the empire from the inroads or ravages of barbarians.

After the rise of Mohammedan power, however, Asia Minor was repeatedly traversed by the armies of Arab conquerors, who twice laid siege to Constantinople, which was never permanently annexed to the dominion of the caliphs, like the adjoining provinces of Syria and Mesopotamia; and the whole country, as far as the Pass of Mount Emanus, continued subject to the Byzantine empire, until it was overrun by the Seljukian Turks in 1074 A. D.

Turks  
 Conquer  
 Asia  
 Minor

The conquest of Asia Minor by the Turks was not a mere passing inroad, but a permanent occupation of the country, in which they established themselves in such numbers that they have ever since formed the permanent element in the population, and have to a great extent supplanted or absorbed all the previously existing races. But the dynasty of the house of Seljuk, established by the first conqueror, Soliman, who had fixed his capital at Nice, within 100 miles of Constantinople, did not long retain its undivided sovereignty, and its power was broken by the armies of the first crusade (1097 A. D.), which at Nice defeated the Turks in a great battle at Dorylæum, and then swept over the land almost without opposition to the very walls of Antioch.

The Byzantine Empire recovered possession of the whole circuit of coast from Trebizond to the Syrian gates; and the Seljukian Sultans of Rûm, as they termed themselves, who had removed their capital to Iconium, in the heart of the interior, found them-

selves cut off from the sea on all sides. Their dominion was gradually broken up and divided among a number of small and independent states, until the rise of the Ottoman dynasty, at the commencement of the fourteenth century, once more consolidated the power of the Turks in Asia. The history of Asia Minor from this period is inseparably connected with that of the Turkish Empire, and is treated under the history of Turkey.

Asia Minor of the present day is divided into twelve provinces, having an area of about 205,000 square miles and a population of over 9,000,000. Of all the Turkish Asiatic possessions, Asia Minor, or Anatolia, as it is called to-day, possesses by far the most important resources.

DIVISION I  
EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION  
ASIA MINOR

Asia  
Minor a  
Part of  
Turkey

## ARABIA

ARABIA in ancient times was divided into three great sections : Arabia Petræa, containing the city of Petra ; Deserta (desert) ; and Felix (happy). The first and last of these answer roughly to the modern divisions of the region of Sinai in the northwest, and Yemen in the southwest, while the name Deserta was vaguely given to to the rest of the country.

The Arabs claim descent from Ishmael, the eldest son of Abraham, born 1910 B. C. They are of two main races; the one occupying the northern half of the country is called Ishmaelitic, and the other covering the southern half is called the Yuktannic, if we use the Hebrew word, and Kahtannic if we use their own, and in Arabia is regarded as the pure old Arab stock. The origin of this class is probably African. In prehistoric times they issued from Yemen to Oman and Central Arabia.

Two  
Races of  
Arabs

The history of Arabia previous to Mohammed is obscure. Jews in great numbers emigrated into this country after the destruction of Jerusalem. Arabia was unsuccessfully invaded by Gallus, the Roman governor of Egypt, 24 B. C. Trajan appropriated some of the extreme northern parts bordering on the empire, but they were restored after his death. Persia, too, intruded over the nearest borders. In the fourth century the Abbysinians invaded Yemen successfully, and ruled it for many years. Again in 529, A. D., a large Abyssinian army subdued Yemen, and held their ground for seventy-six years. Hejaz proved impenetrable against

DIVISION I  
 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ARABIA

Persia, Egypt, Rome, and Byzantium. The Arabians lived then more after the manner of the Bedouins of the present time, in tents, following the pasture, and exchanging sheep for what corn they needed. Their wealth consisted in camels, sheep, horses, and slaves.

Government in  
 Arabia

The Arabs did not have what could be styled a government, but sheikhs, chosen from certain families, led the camps. The usage of "blood revenge," calling out the kin of the slain against the kin of the murderer, punished and prevented homicide, and thus precluded peace and extermination. Polygamy, the common practise of burying female children alive, and many old proverbs, as "The best son-in-law is the grave," illustrate the position of woman. They were incurably prone to pillage, passionately fond of freedom, proud of birth, hospitable, true to their word, true to their tribe or to a tribesman, right or wrong, against the world.

Earliest  
 Religions  
 in  
 Arabia

The religion of the Arabs was modeled to a considerable extent after that of the Hebrews, but they also were idolaters. After the destruction of Jerusalem by Titus many of the Jews took refuge in Arabia, where they made many proselytes, so that in a century or two the Jewish Arabians became a very powerful section of the whole people. In a similar way converts to Christianity were made. During the period of persecution which followers of Christ suffered in the third century, many fled to Arabia. The faith of the Persian Magi, of which Zoroaster was the founder, had long before been embraced by numerous Arab tribes, so that in the sixth century the population of Arabia was divided into Sabians, Magians, Jews, and Christians.

Mohammed Es-  
 tablishes  
 a New  
 Religion

As the propagator of a new code of religion, ascribed to divine revelation, the celebrated Mohammed \* stands conspicuous in their

Marvel-  
 ous  
 Spread of  
 Moham-  
 medan-  
 ism

\* Mohammed was assisted in starting his wars of religious aggression by influential relatives, and in twenty years from the commencement of his career he found that the Arabians had embraced his doctrine, and submitted to his government. The successors of Mohammed took the title of "Caliph," or vicars of the Prophet. Full of that fire and zeal which generally accompanies and inspires a new religion, they spread into the different countries their doctrine and their power. Persia and Greece were among the first to follow, and afterward Damascus, Antioch, and Syria. They then penetrated into Palestine and took Jerusalem. They destroyed entirely the monarchies of Persia and the Medes, of Khorassan and Dierbeck, Bachtriana and Mesopotamia; nor was their progress less successful in Africa. They subdued all the coast to the west of Egypt, and Egypt itself submitted to their government, together with the islands of Cyprus, Rhodes, Crete, Sicily, Malta, and many others. It appears that in Asia and Africa at different

annals. Among them he made many converts, and his successors have for centuries maintained the ascendancy he founded. With his advent the Arabians uprose and united for the purpose of extending the new creed, and under the caliphs, the successors of Mohammed, they attained great power, and founded large and powerful kingdoms in three continents. On the fall of the caliphate of Bagdad in 1258 the decline set in, and on the expulsion of the Moors from Spain the foreign rule of the Arabs came to an end.

In the sixteenth century Turkey subjected Hejaz and Yemen, and received the nominal submission of the tribes inhabiting the rest of Arabia.\* The subjection of Hejaz has continued down to the present day, but Yemen achieved its independence in the seventeenth century, and maintained it till 1871, when the territory again fell into the hands of the Turks. In 1839 Aden was occupied by the British. Oman early became virtually independent of the caliphs, and grew into a well-organized kingdom.

In 1507 the capital, Muscat, was occupied by the Portuguese,

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times there were over fifty caliphs successors of Mohammed, every one of whom pretended to be his descendant or true interpreter of the law. Thus by imposture and fanaticism the Arabian dominion rose in importance, but like every gigantic empire fell by its own unwieldiness. Spain, Egypt, and Africa were soon engaged in throwing off the Saracen yoke, and the caliphs found it necessary to call to their aid those wild hordes of Tartars and Turks who had partially received the doctrine of the Prophet, and from them they chose a party of mercenary troops to guard their property and protect their persons. Thus they bolstered up their tottering throne until the Tartar army in 1258 captured Bagdad, and put an end to the nominal existence of the caliphate. The religion of Mohammed was acknowledged, but the power was transferred from the caliphs of Bagdad to the Turkish Sultan, though the heads of the different tribes continued to govern their subjects as before. A reformation was begun in the eighteenth century, and its progress was marked by the demolition of several towns and the massacre of thousands of people. Mecca was taken and completely destroyed, excepting the sacred temple.

\* Before the time of Mohammed poetical contests were held and prizes awarded for the best subjects. Mohammed gave a new direction to Arabian literature. The rules of faith and life which he laid down were collected and published, and constitute the Mohammedan Bible, or Koran. The progress of the Arabs in literature, the arts, and sciences practically began about A. D. 749 at Bagdad. In Spain important works were written on geography, history, philosophy, medicine, physics, mathematics, arithmetic, geometry, and astronomy. Most of the geography of the Middle Ages is the work of the Arabians, and their historians since the eighth century have been very numerous. In medicine they excelled all other nations in the Middle Ages. Their mathematics and astronomy were based on the works of Greek writers, but the former they enriched, simplified, and extended. It was by them that algebra was introduced to the western peoples, and Arabian numerals were similarly introduced. Tales and romances in prose and verse were written. Tales of fairies, genii, enchanters, and sorcerers in particular, passed from Arabia to the western nations, as in the "Arabian Nights."

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 EARLIEST  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 ARABIA

Civiliza-  
 tion of  
 the Arabs

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EARLIEST  
CIVILIZA-  
TION  
ARABIA

who were not driven out until 1659. The Wahabis appeared toward the end of the eighteenth century, and took an important part in the political affairs of Arabia, but their progress was interrupted by Mohammed Ali, pasha of Egypt, and they suffered a complete defeat by Ibrahim Pasha. He extended his power over most of the country, but the events of 1840 in Syria compelled him to renounce all claims to Arabia. The Hejaz thus again became subject to Turkish sway, which has since been extended not only over Yemen but also over the district of El-Hasa on the Persian Gulf.





*A GENERAL VIEW OF ASIA*

ANCIENT AND MODERN

ASIA is the largest of the divisions of the world, and occupies the northern portion of the eastern hemisphere in the form of a massive continent which extends beyond the Arctic circle, and by its southern peninsulas nearly reaches the equator. The origin of its name remains unknown. Herodotus failed to explain it; modern philology has also failed. It appears, however, most probable — the first elements of our geographical terminology having originated in Greece — that Asia was a local name given to the plains of Ephesus, and that this name was gradually extended to the Anatolian peninsula, and later on to the whole of the continent.

Extent of  
Asia

Viewed in their broad features, Europe and Asia constitute but one continent, extending from west to east, and having the shape of an immense triangle, the angles of which are Spain in the west, the peninsula of the Tchuktchis in the northeast, and that of Malacca in the southeast. The Arctic ocean in the north, the Pacific in the east, and the Indian ocean, continued by its narrow gulf, the Red Sea, which nearly reaches the Mediterranean, enclose the continent of Asia. The area covered by Asia and its islands is 17,255,890 square miles; that is, almost exactly one third of the land surface of the globe. It is nearly equal to the surface of both Americas together, by one-half larger than the continent of Africa, and more than four times larger than Europe.

Asia and Europe show many similar features. The surface of both continents show a manifold interdependence; and however pronounced the individuality of Europe in the west, it melts into Asia in its eastern parts; while throughout its history Europe has been influenced by Asia in a thousand ways. The races of the latter mixed with those of Europe, while in Asia the civilization, the

Europe  
Influ-  
enced by  
Asia

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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION

religions, the political and social institutions of Europe, had their origin. Ever since Europe made an independent start in history, it has never ceased to feel the influence of Asia.

Peoples

Together with Egypt, Asia was the cradle of present civilization; but, owing to many circumstances, partly physical and partly historical, the development of Asia proceeded on independent lines, and, as a whole, it may be considered as behind the civilization of the rest of the world. The current of civilization, which formerly moved from Asia to Europe, returns now from west to east — unhappily, too often in its worst shape, that of conquest. Many a civilization which grew up, either in southwestern Asia or on the northern slope of the great plateau, has been swept away by invasions of less civilized half-nomads. At present one finds in Asia all varieties of civilization: the primitive tribes of northeastern Siberia, the confederations of nomadic shepherds, and great nations in possession of a common stock of national customs, beliefs, and literature, like China; the tribal stage; the “compound family,” forming the real basis of China’s social organization; the rural community, both of the Indian and Mussulman type; the loose aggregations of Tchuktchis, having no rulers, and no religion beyond the worship of forces of nature, but professing with regard to one another principles of morality and mutual support often forgotten in higher stages of civilization; and despotic monarchies, with a powerful clergy. So also in economic life; while the tribes of the northeast find their means of subsistence exclusively in fishing and hunting carried on with the simplest implements, among which stone weapons have not yet quite disappeared, and the tribes of central Asia carry on primitive cattle-breeding and lead a half-nomadic life, others are agriculturists, and have brought irrigation (in Turkestan) to a high degree of perfection.

In the first division of the history of nations we treated of those nations of western Asia under the general head of “Earliest Civilization.” Therefore, it remains for this chapter to deal with those Asiatic nations to the east and south.

Greeks  
 in Asia

We have noted the attempts of Greece to push her civilization and culture into the central part of Asia, but her influence in these decaying empires was easily stamped out by the raids of the Mongols. The Roman empire was absorbed, and fell into decay at the



# ASIA.

SCALE OF MILES.

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90° LONGITUDE GREENWICH

110°

130°

140°



very confines of Asia, on the shores of the Bosphorus; the Sasanides of Persia repulsed the Roman aggression, and conquered Roman provinces, and in the first centuries of our era great masses of people migrated from Asia to Europe.

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TION

Ural-Altaians went first to the Urals, and thence to Hungary. Other Turanians — the Mervs, the Alans, the Avars — penetrated into Europe from the southeast; Mongols abandoned their rapidly desiccating plateaus, and invaded the Russian plains; the Arabs, following the south coast of the Mediterranean, invaded Spain; and the empire of the Turks arose on the ruins of the Eastern Roman empire. By these invasions, Asia arrested the free development of Europe, and compelled the Germanic, Gallic, and Slavonic federations to gather into powerful states of the Roman monarchical type.

A new epoch in Asiatic history dawned after the development of navigation, when Portuguese ships, rounding the Cape, founded the first European colonies in India, and discovered the secluded Japanese. They were soon followed by the Spanish, the Dutch, the French, the Danes, and the English, all endeavoring to seize the richest colonies in Asia, and all involved in interminable struggles for preponderance in her lands and on her seas. Russia, acting alone and in another direction, in the course of a few centuries, conquered and partly colonized the best parts of the immense cold prairies and forest lands on the northwestern slope of the high plateau, and crossing its narrow extremity in the northeast, reached the Pacific.

Navigation  
Affects  
Asia

Great Britain established herself in India, and expelling thence her competitors from all but a few spots on the sea-coast, she took possession of the whole of the peninsula, and extended her powers over the western parts of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula. The Portuguese retain in India only Diu, Daman, and Goa; and the French keep Chandernagore, Yanaon, Pondicherry, Carical, and Mahé. The next colonial power in Asia is the Dutch, who have under their dominion most of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Celebes, the Moluccas, and the small Sunda Islands.

The British finally secured control of Burma, and France annexed a part of Tonquin. Until the Spanish-American war in 1898, Spain owned the Philippine Islands, the Marianes, the Carolines, and the Sulu Archipelago.

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CIVILIZA-  
TION**Rapid  
Advance  
in China  
and  
Japan**

The great advances made in eastern Asiatic civilization, however, within the last century have been made in China and Japan. The latter country, which had practically forbidden all foreigners to land upon its shores for any purpose whatsoever since the discovery of the Japanese Islands by the Portuguese and Dutch, has become one of the great nations of the world. The adoption of western ideas, both social and political, brought the country out of the secluded state in which it had existed for many centuries. The recent advances in China have been brought about by the influence of those European powers which have been laboring, and are laboring still, for commercial and territorial advantages within the empire. The principal of these are Russia, Great Britain, Germany, and France. A brief discussion of the movements made by these powers along the line of the division of China will be found in the chapter on China.

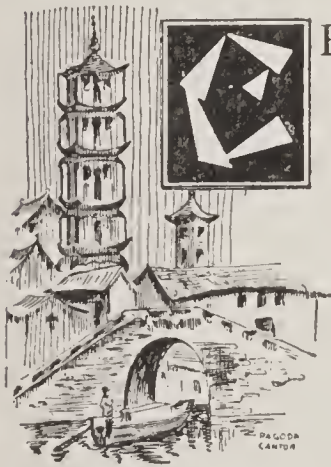


## THE HISTORY OF CHINA

“The Celestial Empire.”

ALSO TURKESTAN

[*Authorities* : J. B. du Helde, *Description Géographique, etc., de la Chine et de la Tartarie Chinoise* (4 vols., Paris, 1735); *Histoire Générale de la Chine, ou Annales de cet Empire, traduites du Tong-kien Kang-muh, par le feu Père Joseph Annie-Marie de Moyriac de Mailla* (12 vols., Paris, 1776–85); Demetrius C. Boulger, *History of China* (3 vols., London, 1881–84); *China : a History of the Laws, Manners, and Customs of the People*, by William John Henry Gray (2 vols., London, 1877); Sir John F. Davis, *China : a General Description of that Empire and Its Inhabitants, etc.* (2 vols., 1857); S. Wells Williams, LL. D., *The Middle Kingdom : a Survey of the Geography, Government, etc., of the Chinese Empire and Its Inhabitants*, revised edition (2 vols., 1883); Ferd. Freiherr von Richthofen, *China : Ergebnisse eigener Reisen und darauf gegründeter Studien* (Berlin, 1877–85); E. Simon, *China : Religious, Political, and Social* (1887); W. F. Meyers, *The Chinese Government* (Shanghai, 1877); Rev. Dr. W. A. P. Martin, *The Chinese : Their Education, Philosophy, and Letters* (1881); Rev. Justus Doolittle, *The Social Life of the Chinese* (2 vols., 1887); Rev. Dr. A. Williamson, *Fourneys in North China, Manchuria, and Eastern Mongolia, with Some Account of Corea* (2 vols., London, 1870); Rev. John Ross, *The Manchus, or the Reigning Dynasty of China : Their Rise and Progress* (Paisley, 1830); Rev. Dr. J. Legge, *The Chinese Classics* (vols. i to v, Hongkong, vols. vi and vii, Oxford); *China*, Prof. R. K. Douglas (1887); *Chinese Sketches*, H. A. Giles (1876); and contemporary official reports.



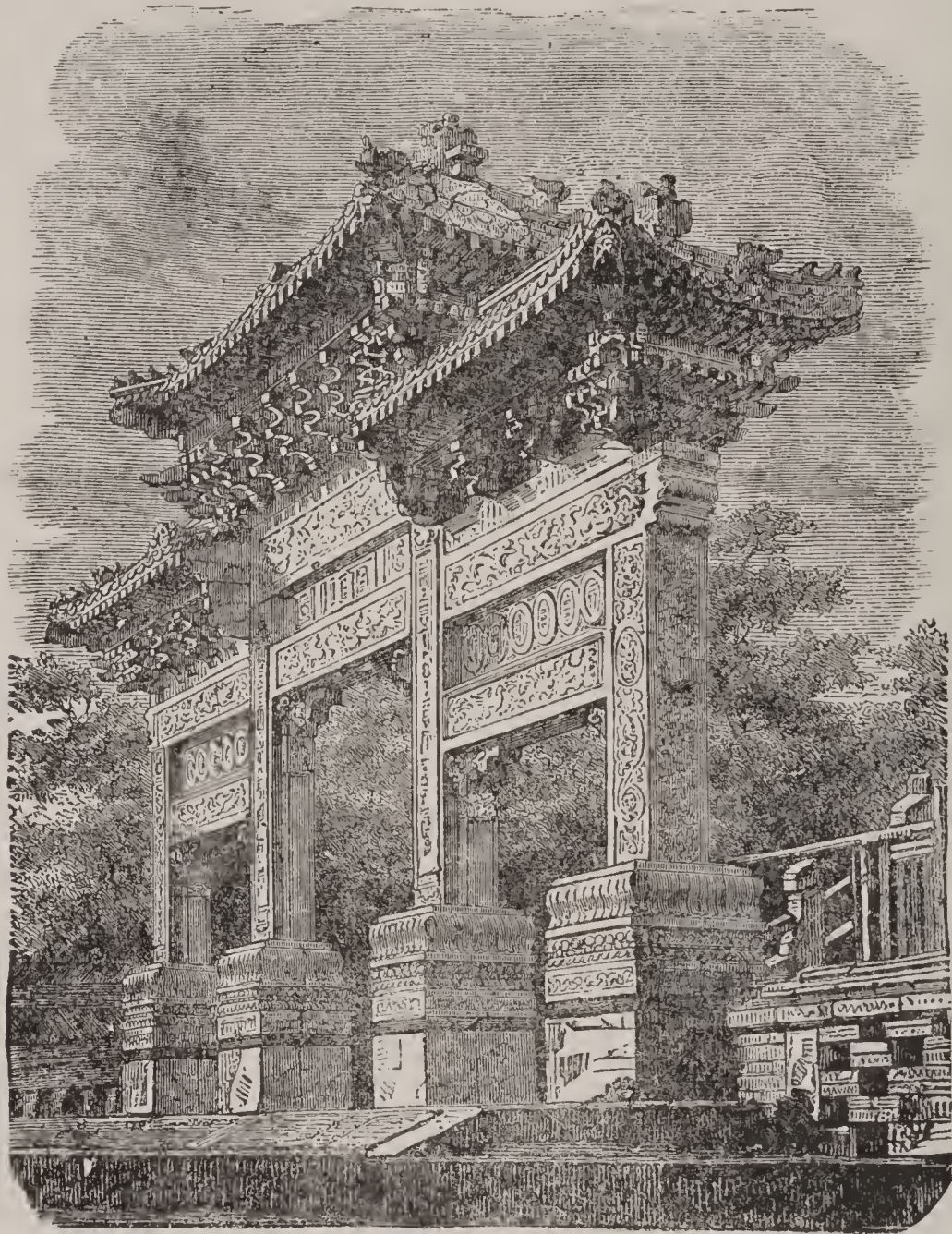
CHINA is an immense empire stretching from the Pacific coast westward for 3,000 miles to the center of Asia, and from the Siberian frontier southward to the island of Hainan. Besides China proper the empire embraces within its borders the dependencies of Manchuria, Mongolia, and Thibet. China proper is divided into nineteen provinces.

The early history of the Chinese is shrouded in fable, but it is certain that civilization had advanced much among them when it was only beginning to dawn on the nations of Europe. Far-reach-

Origin  
of the  
Chinese

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 TION  
 CHINA

ing as is the history of China, it yet fails to give any account of the origin of the Chinese race. The first accounts of China describe a little horde of wanderers roving among the forests of Shan-sie, without houses, without clothing, without fire to cook their vict-



CHINESE GATEWAY

Chronol-  
 ogy

uals, and subsisting upon the spoils of the chase. Investigation has demonstrated, however, that these wanderers were not indigenous to the soil, but were strangers and pilgrims from other lands.

The chronology of China is measured not by centuries but by sexagenaries, the first cycle being made to commence with the sixtieth year of Hwang-Ti, in 2637 B. C. But this is merely a conventional arrangement. There were Chinese in China before Hwang-Ti. Cycle names for years prior to 827 B. C. can not be fully relied on. The documents of the Shu-King began with the



reign of Yao or Shun, 2356-2206 B. C., and from various intimations in that work it may be concluded that the nation then con-

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—  
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TION  
—  
CHINA



INTERIOR OF CHINESE TEMPLE

sisted of a collection of tribes of the same race, and ruled by a sovereign nominated by the predecessor and approved by the people.

With Yu, the successor of Shun, there came a change in the principles of succession to the throne. The "Feudal State"

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TION

CHINA

Feudal-  
ism in  
China

commenced and lasted under three dynasties, from 2205 to 225 B. C., a period of nearly 2,000 years. The feudal system of China was very similar to that which prevailed in Europe during the Middle Ages. At the grand Durbar, held by Yu after his accession, there were at least 10,000 princes present with their jade symbols of rank, but the feudal cities were constantly being absorbed by one another. On the rise of the second of the three feudal dynasties, known as the Shang or Yin dynasty, there were only somewhat over 3,000, which number had decreased to 1,300 when King Wu established the sovereignty of the third feudal dynasty called the *Chau*.

China  
United  
under one  
Emperor

In 403 B. C. there were only seven great states, all claiming to be the "kingdom," and contending for the supremacy until Thsin put down all others. In 221 B. C. the king of Thsin assumed the title of *Hwang-Ti*, or emperor, and determined that there should be no more feudal principalities; and as there is but one sun in the sky, there should be but one ruler in the nation.

From this year dates the imperial form of the Chinese government, which has thus existed for more than 2,100 years. The changes of dynasty have been many, two or more sometimes ruling together. The greater dynasties have been those of Han, 206 B. C.-220 A. D.; the Tang, 618-906; Sung, 960-1279; Yuan, the Mongul, 1280-1367; the Ming, 1368-1643, and the Ching, Manchu-Tartar, 1643 to the present date.

Chau the  
Earliest  
Historic  
Dynasty

The Chau dynasty, which was founded by Wu-Wang, and lasted from 1100 B. C. to 258 B. C., is perhaps the earliest that can be regarded as strictly historic. Under Ling-Wang, one of the sovereigns of this dynasty, Confucius\* is said to have been born, some time in the sixth century B. C.

Confu-  
cius

\* This great teacher began his career at the age of twenty-one, and so striking a reformation was effected by him that he was chosen for higher office under the government, became minister of crime, and with one or two powerful disciples elevated the city of Lu, his native city, to a leading position in the kingdom. Its marquis, however, soon gave himself up to debauchery, and Confucius became a wanderer in many states for a number of years. Confucius left no work detailing his social or moral system; but the five canonical books of *Confucianism*, and four books by the disciples of Confucius, give his teachings, which have had and still have an immense influence in China. He can hardly be said to have founded either a religion or a philosophy. All his teaching was devoted to practical morality and to the duties of man in this world in relation to his fellow men; in it was summed up the wisdom acquired by his own insight and experience, and that derived from the teachings of the sages of antiquity.

During the latter half of the period in which this line of sovereigns held sway, there appear to have been a number of rival

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A CHINESE MANDARIN

kings in China who lived in strife with one another. Chow Siang, who was the founder of the Thsin dynasty, from which China took

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TION

CHINA

Great  
Wall  
BuiltTartars  
Invade  
ChinaMongols  
Conquer  
ChinaChinese  
Wall

its name, gained superiority over his rivals in the third century B. C. His great grandson, a national hero of the Chinese, ruled over an empire which was then nearly conterminous with China proper. In his reign the great wall,\* designed as a protection against the marauding Tartars, was begun in 214 B. C.

Buddhism was introduced in 65 A. D. Subsequently the empire broke up into three or more states, and a long period of confusion and weak government ensued. In 960 a strong ruler managed to consolidate the empire, but the attacks of the Tartars were now a cause of much trouble. They made persistent efforts to obtain a footing in the interior of the Chinese empire, and formed a league with the Chinese revoltors against the new emperor. The subsequent conflicts were dreaded, and the troops of the princes of Pan, knowing they had no mercy to hope for if taken prisoners, fought with the fury of despair, and they were well seconded by the Tartars.

However, the emperor was completely successful. He then turned his attention to the chastisement of the Mongols who had joined the princes of Pan in a former war, but the issue of this expedition was still uncertain when the emperor died. In the thirteenth century the Mongols under Genghis Khan † and his son

\* The Chinese wall was the largest artificial structure on the face of the earth, extending about 1500 miles in the north to China proper, of which it partly forms the present boundary. Its western end is in the center of Asia, and the eastern reaches the sea to the northeast of Peking. It is carried over height and hollow, and evades no inequality in the ground, reaching in one place a height of over 5,000 feet above the sea. Earth, gravel, brick, and stone were used in its construction, and in some places it is much more substantial than in others. Its height ranges from fifteen to thirty feet, and at its greatest height, including the parapet, is about fifty feet, and is strengthened by towers at regular distances.

† Genghis Khan, originally called Temujin, a celebrated Mongol conqueror, was born in 1162 at Deligun Bulduk on the river Onon southeast of Lake Baikal, the son of a Mongol chief whose sway extended over a great part of the region between the Amur and the Great Wall of China. Being called upon to rule his father's people when only thirteen years of age, Genghis Khan had to struggle hard for several years, first against a confederacy of revolted tribes, then against different confederacies of hostile tribes and neighboring rivals, whom his uninterrupted successes and rapidly growing power had made jealous. The most critical period of his career at this juncture occurred during a war with Wang Khan, the powerful chief of the Keraits. Genghis Khan, at first worsted, was compelled to retire to a desert region with only a few warriors; but in the following year (1203) he collected another army, and with it inflicted upon his enemy a crushing and decisive defeat. The Keraits thereupon became subject to Genghis Khan. His ambition awakening with his continued success, the Mongol prince spent the next six years in subjugating the Naimans, a powerful Turkish confederacy who occupied the region between Lake Balkhash and the river Irtish; in conquering Hia or Tangut, a Chinese empire

Ogdai conquered China, and in 1259 the celebrated Kublai Khan, a nephew of the latter, ascended the throne, and founded the Ming dynasty.

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CIVILIZA-  
TION

CHINA

lying between the Desert of Gobi and Chaidam; and in assimilating the results of the voluntary submission of the Turkish Uigurs, from whom the Mongols derived the beginnings of their civilization, as their alphabet and laws. It was during this period (in 1206) that he adopted the title of Jenghiz or Genghis Khan, equivalent to "Very Mighty Ruler."

**Genghis  
Khan**

Bent upon yet more ambitious schemes, he in 1211 refused tribute to the Kin emperor of North China, and invaded and overran his country in several campaigns. About this same time, too, his attention was directed to the west; with comparatively little trouble he defeated the ruler of the Kara-Chitai empire, and annexed (1217) his country, which extended from Lake Balkash to Tibet. His next undertaking was the most formidable of all, an attack upon the powerful empire of Kharezm, whose confines ran conterminous with the Jaxartes (Sihûn or Sir-Daria), Ferghana, the Indus, Persian Gulf, Kurdistan, Georgia, and the Caspian Sea. Entering this extensive country with three armies in 1218, the Mongol prince and his captains successively took, often by storm, the populous cities of Otrar, Sighnak, Aksi Khojend, Bokhara, and Samarcand; hunted down Mohammed, the ruler of Kharezm, and the princes of his family, from one end of his territories to the other; captured Urgenj or Kharezm (now Khiva); devastated with most horrible cruelties and barbarities the beautiful and prosperous province of Khorasan and its cities (Nessa Merv, Nishapur, and Herat); chased Jelal-ud-Din, son and heir of Mohammed, across the Indus into India, and finally returned home in 1225 by the way they had come. Two of Genghis's lieutenants, Chépé and Subutai, who had so relentlessly and pertinaciously hunted down Mohammed, passed on from the southern shore of the Caspian northward through Azerbaijan and Georgia, then, turning to the west, they traversed southern Russia and penetrated to the Crimea, everywhere routing and slaying, and finally returned by way of Great Bulgaria and the Volga, beyond the northern end of the Caspian — a marvelous military raid. Meanwhile in the far East, Mukuli, one of the most capable among the group of the great conqueror's clever generals, had completed the conquest of all northern China (1217-23) except Homan.

Genghis did not long stay quietly at home. After but a few month's rest he again took to the saddle, to go and chastise the king of Hia or Tangut, who had refused him obedience. But this was his last expedition, for, after thoroughly subduing the country, Genghis died of sickness, on August 18, 1227, among the northern offshoots of the Kuen-Lun, called the Mountains of Liupan. The rapidity and magnitude of his conquests seem to have been as much due to the admirable discipline and organization of his armies as to the methods in which he conducted his campaigns. His troops were all horsemen, hardy, abstemious, inured to fatigue, indifferent to weather, accustomed to go days and nights in the saddle without resting. Thus the Mongol armies could move with extreme celerity, and needed little provisioning. They never left either enemy or strong town behind their backs to threaten their communications: all the former were ruthlessly slain or massacred, all the latter completely razed to the ground. The hard labor necessary in besieging the fortified cities was done by the peasantry of the country in which they were situated, and in the battles the same wretched people were frequently placed by the Mongols in the forefront of the fight to bear the brunt of their enemies' onset. Genghis was, however, something more than a warrior and conqueror; he was also a skilful administrator and ruler: he not only conquered empires stretching from the Black Sea to the Pacific, but he organized them into states which endured beyond the short span that usually measures the life of Asiatic sovereignties.

## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## CHINA

His ninth descendant was driven from the throne, and a native dynasty called Ming again succeeded in 1368 in the person of Hung Wu. A long period of peace ensued, but was broken in 1618 when

the Manchus gained the ascendancy, and after a war of twenty-seven years founded the existing Tartar dynasty in the person of Tungchi. They established their capital in the northern city of Peking, which was nearer their native country and resources than the old capital, Nanking.

The earliest accounts of China published in Europe, are those of Marco Polo, who visited the country in the thirteenth century. But it was not till after the Cape of Good Hope was doubled, and the passage to India discovered by Vasco



AT A CHINESE SCHOOL

Europe  
learns of  
China

da Gama in 1497, that intercourse between the European nations and China was possible by sea. It was in 1516 that the Portuguese first made their appearance at Canton, and they were followed at intervals by the Spanish, Dutch, and English till 1635.

The Chinese did not receive them cordially, and the dislike was

increased by the mutual jealousies and collisions with one another. The Manchu sovereignty of the empire, moreover, was then in the throes of its birth, and its rulers were the more disposed to assert their own superiority to all other potentates. They would not acknowledge them as their equals, but only as their vassals. They felt the power of the foreigners whenever they made an attempt to restrict their operations by force, and began to fear them. As they became aware of their conquests in the Philippines, Java, and India, they would gladly have prohibited their approach to their territory altogether.

In the meantime trade gradually increased, and there grew up the importation of opium from India, and the wonderful eagerness of the multitudes to purchase and smoke it. Before 1767 the import rarely exceeded two hundred chests, but that year it amounted to one thousand.

In 1792 the British government sent an embassy to Peking with presents to the emperor, to place the relations between the two countries on a secure and proper footing; but though the ambassador and the members of his suite were courteously received, the main objects were not accomplished. In 1800 an imperial edict expressly prohibited the importation of opium, and threatened all Chinese who smoked it with condign punishment. It had been before a smuggling traffic, and henceforth there could be no doubt as to its real character. Still it went on and increased from year to year.

Great Britain sent a second embassy, which was dismissed from Peking suddenly because the ambassador, Lord Amherst, would not perform the "repeated prostrations," and thereby acknowledge his own sovereign to be but a vassal of the Chinese Empire. In 1840, the British, on being refused redress for injuries, partly real and partly alleged, proceeded to hostilities, and after conquering almost without a struggle nearly every force which was opposed to them, they were preparing to lay siege to Nanking, when the Chinese found it necessary to sue for peace. A treaty was concluded (1842) by which the five ports, Canton, Amoy, Fu-Chau, Ning-Pu, and Shang-hai, should be open to British trade and residence, the island of Hongkong ceded to the British, and a payment of \$21,000,000 to be made by the Chinese. This contest was known as the "Opium War."

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Opium  
 Intro-  
 duced in  
 Eight-  
 eenth  
 Century

Great  
 Britain  
 Secures  
 First  
 Footing  
 in China

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In 1850 an insurrection broke out in the provinces adjoining Canton, with the object of expelling the Manchu dynasty from the throne as well as of restoring the ancient religion of Shan-Ti, and of making Tien-te the founder of a new dynasty which he called that of Tai-Ping, or "Universal Peace." After a long period of civil war the Tai-Ping rebellion was at length suppressed in 1865, chiefly by the exertions of General Gordon and other American and British officers at the head of the Chinese army.

In October, 1856, the crew of a vessel belonging to the British at Hongkong was seized by the Chinese. The men were afterward brought back, but all reparation or apology was refused. In consequence of this a war with China was commenced in which the French took part with the British. Peking was taken in 1860, and the Chinese government finally gave way and granted a treaty securing important privileges to the allies.

A revolt of the Mohammedans in Turkestan had meantime taken place, and it was not suppressed until 1874; and in 1881 Russia restored the province of Kulja, thus completing the establishment of the Chinese over eastern Turkestan.

The  
 Ruling  
 Emperor

The present emperor, Tsaitien, succeeded in 1875, but only assumed the reins of government in 1887 on reaching the age of sixteen. He is the ninth emperor of China of the Manchu dynasty, which overthrew the native dynasty of Ming in 1644. There exists no law of hereditary succession to the throne, and it is left to the emperor's relatives to appoint his successor from among his family of the generation younger than his own. The late emperor, dying suddenly in the eighteenth year of his age, did not designate his successor, and it was in accordance with an arrangement directed by the empress dowager, widow of the emperor Hien-Fing, that the infant son of Prince Chun was made the nominal occupant of the throne. There were two dowager empresses concerned in the arrangement; the eastern, mentioned above, and the western, the mother of Tung-Chi. The western dowager empress still lives, and practically controls the policy of the government.\*

Govern-  
 ment

\* The laws of the empire are laid down in the "Collected Regulations" of the Thsin dynasty, and prescribe the government of the state to be based upon the government of the family. The supreme direction of the empire is vested in a privy council and grand council. The administrator is given supreme direction of the cabinet composed of four



In 1894 China became involved in a serious and costly war with Japan over Korea. For many years Korea had acknowledged the suzerainty of China. In the seventeenth century renewed conditions of vassalage had been accepted, and in the trade regulations of 1882, China's rights as suzerain were recapitulated and acknowledged by Korea.

Annual missions with tribute were sent to China, and no important step in the relations of Korea with other countries was taken without China's consent.

In 1876 Korea had concluded a treaty with Japan, in 1882 with the United States, in 1883 with Germany and Great Britain, in 1884 with Italy and Russia, in 1886 with France, and in 1892 with Austria. In these negotiations Korea was treated with as an independent state, and by virtue of them



CHINESE MOTHER AND CHILD

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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 CHINA

War with  
 Japan,  
 1894

Korea  
 the  
 Cause

members, two of Manchu and two of Chinese origin, besides two assistants from Han Lin, or Great college, who have to see that nothing is done contrary to the civil or religious laws of the empire contained in the "Regulations," or in the sacred books of Confucius. These members are simply ministers of state. Under their orders are seven boards of government, each of which is presided over by a Manchu and a Chinese. Formerly there were only six boards, but toward the end of 1885, the seventh or admiralty board was created by imperial decree. These boards are: (1) board of civil appointments; (2) board of revenues; (3) board of rites and ceremonies; (4) imperial board; (5) board of public works; (6) high tribunal of crime and jurisprudence; (7) admiralty board. Independent of these is the board of public censors. By an ancient custom of the empire, all members of this board, forty to fifty in number, are privileged to present any remonstrance to the sovereign. One censor must be present at meetings of each of the government boards.

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Seoul and the three ports of Jenchuan, Fusan, and Yuensan were opened to foreign commerce.



A CHINESE TEA FARM

In 1894 violent internal disturbances occurred. The inhabitants split into Chinese and Japanese factions, and applied to each power

for aid. When China sent troops to quell the riots, Japan protested against a violation of the treaty of 1876. Japan landed 5,000 men on the west coast, June 1, 1894, under the pretext of escorting the Japanese minister in safety from the country. The army seized strategical positions, and China demanded the withdrawal of the Japanese troops. The Japanese then seized the Korean king, July 23, and compelled him to appoint a Japanese regent. Hostilities began with a naval engagement two days later, in which the Japanese were victorious, after only a few hours' fighting.

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—  
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—  
CHINA  
—

Chinese  
and  
Japanese  
Factions  
in Korea



CANTON RIVER AND HO-NAN ISLAND

The formal declaration of war was made August 1, and on the 26th of the same month the Japanese minister to Korea had concluded a treaty of alliance between that government and Japan. In this treaty Japan secured to Korea her independence, the withdrawal of the Chinese troops from Korea, and the abolition of Chinese domination in the affairs of Korea. Japan also agreed to prosecute the war against China until a treaty should be concluded between the two countries.

Japan  
Makes  
Alliance  
with  
Korea

The burden of the war, so far as China was concerned, fell upon

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Japanese  
 Win  
 Battle at  
 Ping  
 Yang

Naval  
 Battle of  
 Pe-Chi-  
 Li

Li Hung  
 Chang

Li Hung Chang.\* The Chinese army had not a quarter of the strength of the Japanese, nor had they any modern equipment. The Japanese soon landed 10,000 troops at Fusan, 3,000 at Gensan, and 30,000 at Chemulpo. Against these the Chinese concentrated 30,000 troops at Wiju. They were marched one hundred miles southward to meet the Japanese. The result of the battles could be easily foreseen when it was remembered that the Japanese commanders were graduates of the first military schools of Germany, their soldiers armed with modern rifles, and the entire army drilled in modern methods; and that the Chinese army was commanded by venile and ignorant mandarins, supported by a barbarian horde, more suited with respect to equipment and to soldierly instincts for an encounter with crusaders of a long past age. On September 16, the two armies met at Ping Yang. The Chinese loss was over 16,000, and the Japanese lost 30 killed and 270 wounded. Immense supplies of stores and ammunition fell into the hands of the Japanese. This gave Japan full control of Korea.

The Japanese navy was rapidly getting into prominence in the war, and on September 17 a naval battle was fought in the Gulf of Pe-Chi-Li between twelve iron-clad cruisers and torpedo boats of the Chinese navy and eleven Japanese men-of-war and torpedo boats. In a desperate contest of about six hours' duration, the Japanese, without the loss of a single vessel, had destroyed seven Chinese vessels and put the others to flight. The escaping vessels took refuge in Port Arthur. The disabling of the Chinese navy gave the Japanese an opportunity to land at the Gulf of Pe-Chi-Li. Starting from Wigu they entered Chinese territory, and began

\*Li Hung Chang, a viceroy of China, was born in Hwei-Ling, in the province of Ngan-Wei, at an uncertain date. In 1861 he was appointed governor of Kiangsu, and in 1863, in conjunction with General Gordon, recovered Suchow, and drove the rebels out of Kiangsu. In 1865 he was appointed governor-general of the Tiang-Kiang provinces, and in 1872 viceroy of Pe-Chi-Li, the metropolitan province. He was made commander-in-chief of the Chinese forces during the late war with Japan. In 1896 he visited Europe and America. He is a friend to foreigners and to Western culture and industry, and has practically controlled the foreign policy of the empire, and every department of imperial administration, with consummate forethought and address. To him is due much of China's progress, both industrial and governmental. He was dismissed by the Emperor, Kwang-Hsu, in the summer of 1898, but was speedily restored to influence as a result of the *coup d'état* effected by the Dowager Empress by which the Emperor was deposed and the regency restored. Li Hung Chang is on the side of the Dowager Empress.

preparations for taking Port Arthur, which is across the Gulf of Pe-Chi-Li. Regular siege was laid to the port, with the result that on November 21 the city, with the war vessels that escaped

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—  
CHINA  
—



CHINESE BARROWS

from the former fight, were captured. The cavalry met 2,000 Chinese troops, November 18, eight miles from Port Arthur, and fell back on the first brigade with slight loss. At length the Japanese army was about four miles from the enemy which held

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 CHINA

Port  
 Arthur  
 Taken by  
 Japanese

nine of the eleven land forts. On the 20th, while the Japanese were looking for field artillery positions, 16,000 Chinese made a sortie in three columns. The forts were firing at the Japanese, and part of the army and artillery behind the advance guard, and two battalions of another division repulsed the Chinese after five hours' fighting. On November 21 the Japanese fleet, in conjunction with the artillery on land, captured eleven forts, and the army advanced upon the city. The inhabitants, who had been armed with rifles and explosive cartridges, resisted, and the city had to be taken by storm. The sea forts fell without fighting, and by five o'clock in the afternoon Port Arthur with all of its forts, arms, and equipments had become the property of the Japanese.



MACAO

On the fall of Port Arthur the Japanese reserves were called out, and a second army mobilized and landed on the Chinese coast near Kinchow in the Gulf of Liao. Marching through Manchuria, they fought at Kungwasai, December

18, the most stubbornly contested battle of the war. The Chinese works were carried after four charges by the Japanese. The victors advanced to To Chung Lu, and occupied a position of great strategic value, preparatory to a march on Peking in the spring.

On February 16th a naval station at Wei-Hai-Wei fell into the hands of the Japanese, and China dispatched a peace embassy to Tokio to treat for terms. By the treaty which was signed April 13, 1895, the independence of Korea was proclaimed, the southern part of the Chinese province of Tung-Tien, that part of Manchuria occupied in the war, and the island of Formosa, were ceded to Japan, with a war indemnity of \$150,000,000. Port Arthur and Wei-Hai-Wei were to be evacuated by the Japanese.

In addition to the pecuniary and territorial cessions, China made

China  
 Sues for  
 Peace

Terms of  
 Treaty

many other concessions which were to take effect six months after the date of the treaty of peace. Several cities and ports were opened to the trade, residence, and industries of the Japanese, subject to the same conditions and with the same privileges to vessels as those granted to the Chinese, and Japan was accorded the right to station consuls at any and all such cities or ports. Steam navigation for vessels under the Japanese flag was granted on the upper Yang-tse-Kiang and on the Woo Sung river, and the canal.

DIVISION II  
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 CHINA

This treaty produced a commotion in Europe when its terms were made public. Great commercial interests of several powers were deemed to be threatened by its ratification. Russia, Germany, and France protested against the terms of settlement. Russia especially desired to prevent Japan from securing so strong a foothold on the shores of the Yellow Sea, to which she was constructing a transcontinental line of railroad to connect Siberia and the Pacific with St. Petersburg. France and Germany also joined Russia in making a demand upon Japan that the treaty be modified by receding to China the whole of the Liao-Tung peninsula. It was agreed that Japan should not make the occupation of the peninsula permanent, but insisted that the retrocession demanded should be arranged by China and Japan between themselves. It is supposed that Japan received \$50,000,000 additional indemnity from China for surrendering this valuable part of the spoils of war.

Euro-  
 peans  
 Rush for  
 China

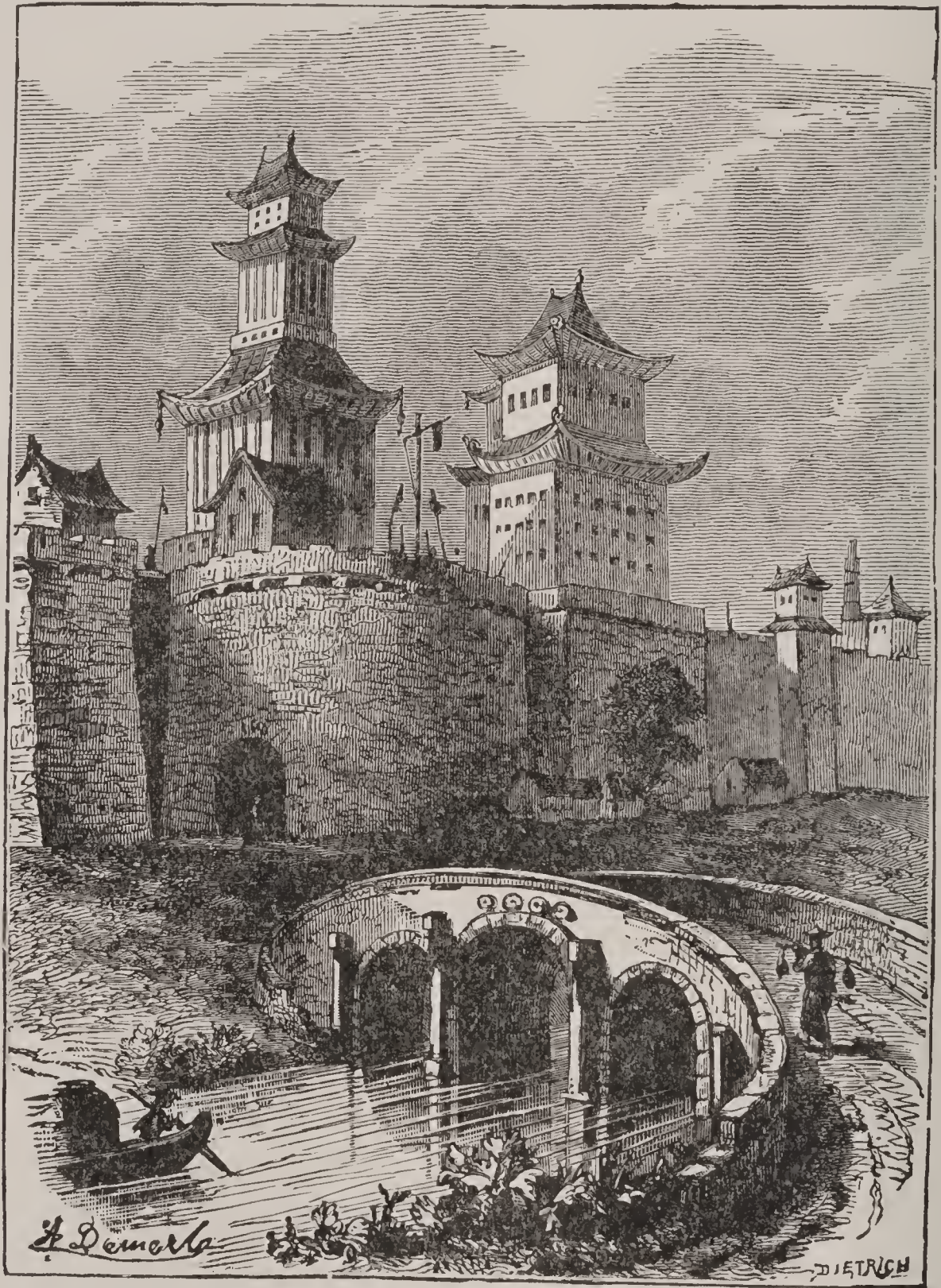
It was not until after the close of the war between China and Japan that the "Celestial Empire" particularly attracted the aggressive cupidity of the European nations. We have noted above that at the close of the so-called Opium War, in 1841, Hong-kong was ceded to Great Britain, but with this exception the Chinese empire remained practically untouched. The weakness displayed by the Chinese in the war with Japan, and the total want of national coherency among the people themselves, only incited the ever-covetous powers of Europe to enrich themselves at the expense of this rich domain. As we have seen, Russia, France, and Germany interfered for China in order that they themselves might secure important concessions for the purpose of establishing military and naval stations in China. Russia especially desired an outlet for the commerce of Siberia which is assuming vast importance. Russia raised her flag over Port Arthur, and on the 27th of

Yellow  
 War  
 Opens up  
 China

Russia  
 Gains  
 Port  
 Arthur

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March, 1898, secured from China the cession of that port. Russia hastened to explain that her occupation of Port Arthur would not injure any foreign nation; but a subsequent publication of the compact disclosed the fact that the ports of Ta-Lun-Wan and



GATE OF PEKING

Arthur were to be reserved for the exclusive use of Russian and Chinese war vessels, and that the remainder of the territory mentioned in the cession, while open to merchant vessels, was closed to the war vessels of other nations. France also received a conces-



sion in the reforming of the boundaries of Tonquin, which was of great benefit to her.

In November, 1897, in the southern part of the province of Shung-Tung, a mission established by German Roman Catholics was attacked by the Chinese, two missionaries were killed, and one was disposed of in a way yet unknown, and the mission buildings were destroyed. This incident furnished Germany with an excuse for seizing a large area of territory, the only benefit which she has received from her alliance with Russia and France in breaking up the treaty between China and Japan. A few days later, November 16, 1897, her excuse was augmented still further by the action of a Chinese mob in the city of Wu Chung, in the way of an attack upon the German minister to China and upon the commander of a German gunboat, insulting the German flag as well. Germany resented this action, and November 18, 1897, a fleet of four war vessels appeared at Kiao-Chau, a strongly fortified fort in the province of Shun-Tung. A demand for the surrender of the harbor was made, and the Chinese garrison fled in haste. The German government demanded compensation for the previous outrages and the punishment of the persons implicated in the destruction of the mission, also the payment of an indemnity of \$450,000 to the families of the murdered men, together with the payment of a sum equal to the expense of the naval expedition, and for the support of a military force at Kiao-Chau. The Chinese government demanded the evacuation of the port before it would consent to negotiations, but the Germans refused to consider the demand. The dispute was settled within a month by the Chinese yielding what Germany demanded, including a lease for ninety-nine years of the territory that Germany had seized.

Europe was deeply stirred by these movements in China. Great Britain was extremely jealous of the concessions which were being granted to Russia. On the other hand, Russia did not look with favor upon the encroachments of Germany. Moreover, Japan was sorely disappointed at being deprived of nearly everything she had gained by her costly war with China. France confined her efforts to securing a foothold in the southern part of the empire bordering on the Tonquin. Meanwhile the Chinese government was negotiating a loan of \$80,000,000 in London. This loan both

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CHINA

**Germany  
Forces a  
Conces-  
sion****Kiao-  
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many's  
Unfair  
Demands****Great  
Powers  
Jealous**

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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 CHINA

France and Russia used every endeavor to prevent, fearing lest such a "favor" to China would secure many favors in return.

The feeling in Great Britain against Russia was intensified by the removal of an Englishman who had been employed to supervise Korean finances, and the appointment of a Russian in his place. Great Britain entered a protest, and the matter was finally adjusted by the agreement to administer the finances by a joint commission of Russian and British officials.

French  
 Gain  
 Hainan  
 Island  
 and  
 Railroad  
 Grants

In December, 1897, the French occupied the island of Hainan, and Great Britain protested, whereupon France disclaimed any intention of permanent occupation. The latter proceeded, however, and acquired the lease of a large bay on the southern coast of China, also the right to build a railroad between Tonquin and Yunan-Fu, in the province of Yunan, an important point on the way from Kwei-Yung-Fu to the western frontier of China. France also secured a promise from the Chinese government not to alienate any of the southern provinces, and not to transfer to any other power the island of Hainan, which lies off the coast of the French possessions in Tonquin and commands the entire coast.

Great  
 Britain  
 in the  
 South

To offset these valuable concessions granted to France, the British immediately secured a lease for ninety-nine years of 200 square miles of territory on the mainland north of Hongkong, taking part of Mirs bay on the east, and Deep bay on the west, also the island of Lantao.

Russia  
 versus  
 Britain

Russia is the principal competitor of Great Britain in China, and the latter is well aware of that fact. The occupation of Port Arthur by Russia was a severe blow to British interests, and several proposals were made to the Czar to give up that strategic point. It was to no avail. Great Britain thereupon made a demand upon the Chinese government for the lease of Wei-Hai-Wei, after it had been evacuated by the Japanese. This was granted, and the British occupied the port on the 20th of May, 1898. It is considered that Great Britain has a better position in Wei-Hai-Wei than Russia has in Port Arthur, because the former has both commercial and naval advantages, while the latter is of no value for commercial purposes. However, Port Arthur commands Peking, the capital, and is capable of strong defense.

The question of railroad concessions has caused considerable diplomatic trouble between China, with Russia and France at her

back, and Great Britain. Matters were complicated in the latter part of 1898 by a *coup d'état*, amounting practically to the deposition of the Chinese emperor and the restoration to the regency of the empress dowager. This seems to have been brought about by the emperor's adoption of a number of extensive and local reforms in the administration of the empire, savoring of Western ideas.

In the summer of 1898 a formidable rebellion in the province of Kwang-Si was announced. Its professed object was the overthrow of the present Manchu dynasty. The rebels made considerable headway against the imperial troops, but in less than a month they were severely defeated. Through August and September nothing of serious import occurred, but it was necessary that drastic measures be taken to prevent anything like a general uprising. The rebellion was unquestionably the result of the war with Japan and the succeeding usurpation of the territory by European powers, or in other words, it was avowedly anti-European. Should this feeling be permitted to gain sufficient headway to become general, it would confront the European powers with a new problem of unexampled gravity. The political atmosphere is clouded by the presence of both the Emperor and the Dowager Empress. This was shown by the fact that the new Russian minister, in December, 1898, ignored the influence of the latter by refusing to present to her his credentials, and handing them to the Emperor instead.

In August and September, 1898, the Emperor was practically deposed by the Dowager Empress, and the regency was restored. This is said to have been caused by the Emperor, who tried to introduce several radical reforms.

On September 22 the rumors of a radical change in the government were confirmed by the publication of an edict from the Emperor, announcing that he had resigned his power to the Empress Dowager. Li Hung Chang, who had been dismissed from service by the Emperor (due it is said to British influence), was reinstated.

In the partition of China there are two main things to be kept in view; one is the question of obtaining commercial advantage, and the other the real acquisition of territory. It is impossible to learn the real purpose of the foreign powers which are making bold demands for concessions in China, but in the case of Great Britain it is plain to be seen that her desire has been to strengthen her

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CIVILIZA-  
TION

CHINA

Revolt in  
Kwang-  
SiQuestion  
of Terri-  
tory or  
Com-  
merce

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 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 CHINA

hold on the rich valley of the Yang-tse-Kiang, which embraces nearly half of the valuable area of the empire. In the case of Russia, on the other hand, it would seem that with her vast possessions in the northern part of the continent of Asia, she was endeavoring to push her actual possessions to the south, and thus prevent Great Britain from extending her possessions northward from India. That Russia is also concerning herself in China for commercial purposes can not be questioned. Her construction of railroads there is the best evidence of commercial expansion. In the northern provinces of Shan-Si and Honan there are immense deposits of coal, and these are controlled by an Anglo-Italian syndicate, which also has valuable railroad concessions. These concessions, together with the loan which Great Britain made to the Chinese government, gives her an influence which must ever be borne in mind in considering the future of the Chinese empire.

### TURKESTAN

Turkes-  
 tan, East-  
 ern and  
 Western

TURKESTAN, "the country of the Turks," is an extensive region of central Asia stretching from the Caspian Sea eastward to beyond Lob-nor, and from Siberia and Dzungaria southward to Persia, Afghanistan, and Tibet. The Pamir, a lofty table-land, separates the rivers running eastward to the desert of Gobi from those which run to the Sea of Aral, and divides Turkestan into the western and the eastern portion. Western Turkestan consists of the great hollow plain of the Caspian and Aral Seas, which occupies its west and center, and of the hilly and well-watered districts formed by the ramifications of the Tian-shan mountains and Hindu Kush. Eastern Turkestan, known also as Chinese Turkestan, lies between the Tian-shan mountains of the north and the highlands of Tibet on the south, having the Pamir table-land on the west. It forms a vast crescent-shaped oasis around the western part of the desert plain of Gobi.

Western Turkestan is divided into Russian Turkestan, including Khokand in the northeast, and the Tekke Turkoman country in the southwest; Bokhara in the east and center.

Ancient  
 Impor-  
 tance

Turkestan has played an important part in Asiatic history from very ancient times. The earliest light on history shows Bactriana and Bokhara as well-cultivated and populous countries, generally

attached to the Persian empire, and inhabited by Persians, to whom most of the prominent cities of Turkestan owe their origin. Turkestan with Persia passed into the hands of the Macedonians, who made Bactria an independent free kingdom, while the rest was in the possession of the Parthians.

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 TION  
 TURKESTAN

Under the Sassanides the Persian boundary was again advanced to the Jaxartes, but the gradual gathering of Turkish tribes from the northeast on the right bank of that river led to a constant state of warfare on the frontier, which resulted in the occupation of the country between the Oxus and Jaxartes rivers, and of Khiva, by the invaders.

In the eighth century of the Christian era the Arabs possessed themselves of Turkestan, and during the decline of the caliphate it became the seat of various minor dynasties. After a brief union with the Seljuk empire in Persia it was mostly united to Kharasm, and along with it overrun by the Mongol hordes under Genghis Khan, on whose death it became one of the four divisions of his vast empire, and was allotted to his son Jagati. After Jagati, Timur, or Tamerlane,\* rose to supreme authority in Turkestan, and in thirty-five years made it the center of an immense empire which stretched from the Hellespont to the frontiers of China, and from Moscow to the Ganges. This period was the golden age of Turkestan. Its powerful monarch was never weary of adorning its cities with the spoils of victory, and all whose knowledge or abili-

Arabs  
 Con-  
 quer Tur-  
 kestan

Tamer-  
 lane  
 and the  
 Golden  
 Age

\* Tamerlane, (1336-1405), a celebrated Oriental conqueror of Mongol or Tartar race, born in the territory of Kesh, near Samarcand. His ancestors were chiefs of the district, and by his energy and abilities he raised himself to be ruler of all Turkestan (1370). By degrees he conquered Persia and the whole of Central Asia, and extended his power from the great wall of China to Moscow. He invaded India (1398), which he conquered from the Indus to the mouths of the Ganges, massacring, it is said, on one occasion 100,000 prisoners. On his way from India to meet the forces of Bajazet, the Turkish sultan, he subjugated Bagdad, plundered Aleppo, burned down the greater part of Damascus, and wrested Syria from the Mamelukes, after which he overran Asia Minor with an immense army. Bajazet's army was completely defeated on the plain of Ancyra (Angora) in 1402, and the Sultan was taken prisoner. The conquests of the Tartar now extended from the Irtish and Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Ganges to the Grecian Archipelago. He was making mighty preparations for an invasion of China when death arrested his progress at his camp at Otrar, beyond the Sir-Daria, and his empire immediately fell to pieces. He was fanatical in his religion, and although no conquests were ever attended with greater cruelty, devastation, and bloodshed, he was in a measure a patron of science and art, and is also reputed author of the *Institutions of Timur* and the *Autobiography of Timur*.

Tamer-  
 lane

## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## TURKESTAN

Timur's  
Descend-  
ants Lose  
Power

ties could be of service to his subjects were either transferred to Turkestan or induced to settle there; thus Samarkand became a focus of enlightenment and learning. After the death of Shah Kokh, Timur's youngest son, the empire was split up into numerous fragments, and the new dynasty snatched Persia from Timur's family, and the Uxbegs in 1500 drove them from the country north of Amu-daria. One of the expelled princes, Baber Uhrza, subsequently founded the "Great Mogul" empire of India.

The Uxbeg empire was divided in 1658 into various independent Khanates. Khiva was conquered by Nadir Shah in 1740, but regained its independence, which it maintained until 1792, when the present Uxbeg dynasty obtained the throne. Khokand was incorporated with Bokhara, but afterward united with the cities of Eastern Turkestan.

Recent  
History

The recent history of Turkestan records a series of wars between Bokhara and Khokand, and Bokhara and Khiva, in which the Bokhariots had generally the advantage owing to the aid of the Turkomans of the southern desert. All the Turkomans along the northern frontier of Persia have long been notorious as brigands and man-stealers, and their atrocities have far exceeded anything recorded of the African slave trade. In 1860 the Persians marched against them, but were defeated in attempting to capture their entrenchments in a marsh. A later expedition in 1865 was somewhat more successful. In 1849 the Afghans invaded the southeastern part of Turkestan for the recovery of possessions they claimed north of the Hindu Kush. In 1850 they had several provinces, and in 1859 the Kunduz and Badakhshan submitted to pay a large tribute. Elsewhere they began to absorb all that remained of independent Turkestan. In 1864 they had Tarshkend and Khokand. A struggle followed with Bokhara. On the 20th of May, 1866, the battle of Irjar was fought, and the Emir had to flee for his life. Two years later the Russians with 9,000 men defeated a force of 40,000 men, and a treaty was concluded by which Bokhara transferred Samarkand to Russia. In 1873 Khiva surrendered to the force of the Russians. After a fair struggle in 1875 and 1876 with the warlike inhabitants of Khokand, Russia formally annexed the whole.

Russia  
Secures  
Part of  
Turkes-  
tan

In 1885 a commission of English and Russians was appointed to delimit the frontier in dispute between Afghanistan and Turkestan,

especially in the steppe region between Merv and Herat; the Oxus being accepted as the frontier farther east. Russian Turkestan had in 1885 an area of over 410,000 square miles, and a population of 3,250,000. A railroad 900 miles long from Uzun-ada on the eastern shore of the Caspian Sea to Samarkand connects this outlying province of Russia with the mother country.

Little is known of Eastern Turkestan previous to its conquest by Genghis Khan, but after the decay of his empire into petty states the chiefs of these were constantly quarreling with each other, till several of the leaders invited the Chinese to take possession of the country. In 1758 it became a province of China. In 1864, after a mutiny among the Chinese, the tribes induced the native chiefs to stir up a Mohammedan insurrection. They invited the Khokand prince to assume the government, and he dispersed the Chinese garrison. His lieutenant soon superseded him, and became sole emir under the title of Atalik Ghazi. He possessed civil as well as military capacity, and raised the country to a state of considerable prosperity. From 1869 he successfully resisted the encroachments of Russia, but in 1876 the Chinese again advanced, defeated him, and retook their old province in 1877.

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 ASIATIC  
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 TION  
 TURKESTAN

China  
 Secures  
 East Tur-  
 kestan



## THE HISTORY OF JAPAN

ALSO KOREA

[*Authorities:* The works of Kaempfer (2 vols. 1727) and of Siebold (20 vols. Leyden, 1832-51) remain always classical. The best handy compendiums of information on Japan are the *Handbook for Japan*, in Murray's series, compiled by Satow and Hawes (1884), the *Ancien Japon* of Appert and Kinoshita (Tōkyō, 1888), and *A Concise Dictionary of Japan: Roads, Towns, Laws, etc.*, by W. N. Whitney (Tōkyō and Lond., 1890). As general treatises, J. J. Rein's *Japan* (2 vols.; Eng. trans., 1884-88) and W. E. Griffis's *The Mikado's Empire* (New York, 1876), may be consulted, the first being scientific, the second popular; Anderson, *Pictorial Arts of Japan* (1886), and Morse, *Japanese Homes* (Boston, 1886). A mine of information is contained in the *Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan*, the *Transactions of the German Asiatic Society*, the *Transactions of the Seismological Society of Japan*, and the *Chrysanthemum*, a monthly review now extinct. The Imperial University sends out valuable journals and memoirs; and the *Japan Weekly Mail*, published in Yokohama, is a trustworthy and high-class periodical. The annual *Résumé Statistique* of the Japanese government is invaluable for reference; also *Statesmen's Year-Book*.]



JAPAN is an empire in the North Pacific ocean, off the coast of China, consisting of an archipelago of islands, of which Nippon, the main island, Kiushiu, and Shikoku, are the most important. There is a great number of smaller ones, including also Formosa and the Pessadores islands, which were ceded to Japan by China at the close of the "Yellow War," in 1895.

The ancient history of Japan, as recorded in the native annals, is so completely shrouded in mythological legend as to be absolutely untrustworthy. The country was styled the "Land of the Gods." It is asserted that there first existed seven generations of heavenly deities, who were followed by five generations of earthly deities, who in turn were succeeded by a mortal sovereign, of whom the present Mikado, or emperor, is the one hundred and twenty-second in descent.

Early  
History



The first historical date among the Japanese corresponds with 660 B. C., when the first emperor, Jimmu, succeeded to the throne. The legendary epoch continued for more than a thousand years, and all Japanese history before 500 A. D. is to be classed as legendary. In 201 A. D. the empress Jingo is said to have invaded and conquered Korea, and this expedition was followed by the introduction of Korean civilization. In 552 Buddhism was introduced from Korea, and became, forty years later, the established religion.\* In 624 the Buddhist hierarchy was established by the government. Shortly before this, trade relations had been entered upon with China, and Chinese civilization was thereafter rapidly assimilated. The system of periods commenced in 646, and from this time onward the national history is clearly traced. During the five centuries which ensued, the people made immense strides in civilization. A complete system of officialdom was organized under the rule of the Fujiwara family, whose members filled all the chief posts under the government, and gave a succession of consorts to the imperial house. The decadence of this family and the growing weakness of this government favored the rise of the hitherto subordinate military class, which created the Shogun, or Generalissimo, in 1192, and seized the reins of power.

DIVISION II

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TION

JAPAN

Korea  
Con-  
queredBuddhist  
ReligionShogun  
Estab-  
lished

The usurpation of supreme authority by this officer, long known

\*The ancient religion of Japan was Shintoism, or the worship of the sun-goddess, from whom the Mikado was supposed to be lineally descended. It was non-idolatrous. Engrafted upon Shintoism, however, were Confucianism and Buddhism, both derived from China. The reforming ministry of 1868 turned its attention to the national religion, and while refraining from proscribing Buddhism altogether, it ordered the destruction of all Buddhist symbols and images in the temples which had formerly been consecrated to Shinto. The tenets of the present religion form the basis of the allegiance due from the subject to the sovereign. Shintoism has ten sects, and Buddhism has twelve sects and thirty creeds. There is no state religion and no state support. The principal Shinto temples, however, are maintained by the state or local authorities. Foreign residents are permitted the free exercise of their own religions, but the propagation of them among the native Japanese is regarded with jealousy. Many of the Japanese temples, of which there are no less than 96,000, are of great extent and magnificence. One of the largest and most celebrated in Yeddo is the temple of Asava, situated in one of the most populous quarters of the city. In every temple may be observed the same stereotyped features,—an altar, an image, chandeliers, paintings, and decorations of artificial flowers. The religious duties of the Japanese consist chiefly in worship at the temples, where they display a very reverent behavior, the observance of festivals, pilgrimages, periodical adoration of tutelary divinities, reverence to parents, obedience to magistrates, and offerings at the tombs of their ancestors. Worship of ancestors is a cardinal point in their creed, and devotion to their memory is the mainspring of all virtues.

Religion

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to Europe by the Chinese name of "Tycoon," led to the erroneous belief that down to 1868 there were two emperors in Japan,—one a Mikado, or spiritual emperor, who reigned but did not govern, and the Shogun, who ruled the government, though he paid homage to the Mikado.

Civil  
Strife

The four centuries preceding 1603 were a period of bloodshed, marked by all the untold miseries of civil strife. The military fiefs organized by Yoritomo, the first Shogun, raised up a feudal baronage, and succeeded in making themselves virtually independent of the central power. Even the Buddhist monasteries in many cases became military centers. During the period from 1333 to 1392, two dynasties held sway, the north and the south, to one or other of which the feudal barons rallied. The Shogunate itself fell into abeyance, and the military genius and astute policy of one of the leaders, Hideyoshi, who died in 1598, prepared the way for its revival in 1603 by Tokugawa Iyeyasu, the illustrious general and statesman who gave lasting peace to Japan.

Yeddo

In 1592 Hideyoshi had directed an expedition against Korea, inflicting a blow against the prosperity of that country from which it has not since recovered. Iyeyasu was victorious over a combination of the southern barons in 1600, and fixed his seat of government at Yeddo, a port situated at the head of the Gulf of Yeddo, and near the embouchure of the rivers which drain the largest plain in Japan. He was backed principally by the northern clans, and was able to consolidate his power and found a permanent succession, his descendants reigning at Yeddo until 1868. From being a collection of small, scattered villages, this place soon became one of the most populous cities in the world.

Portu-  
guese in  
Japan  
in 1542

The Portuguese, who first landed in Japan in the year 1542, carried on a lucrative trade, but in a short time the ruling powers took alarm and ordered away all foreigners, and interdicted Christianity in 1624, believing that foreigners impoverished the country, while their religion struck at the root of the political and religious system of Japan. The Portuguese continued to frequent Japan until 1638, when they and their religion were finally expelled. From this time the Japanese government maintained a most rigid policy of isolation. No foreign vessel might touch at Japanese ports under any pretense. Japanese sailors wrecked on any foreign shore were rarely permitted to return home.

The Dutch, in 1611, had the liberty of free commerce granted them by imperial letters patent, and established a factory at

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TAL SORRO IN NATIVE COSTUME

Firando. After the Portuguese were expelled, they continued to carry on their trade two years longer, hoping to obtain leave to settle in the island of Desima and there continue to trade; but in

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this they were disappointed, for the Emperor, on the assurance given him by the Dutch East India Company that they would supply him with all the articles hitherto supplied by the Portuguese, declared the latter enemies of the empire. Their extirpation was so complete that upon the reopening of Japan not a vestige could be observed of their ever having existed there.

During the long period of Japanese isolation, the Dutch, locked up in their island of Desima, were allowed to hold no communication with the mainland; and they were obliged to live like "frogs in a well," as the Japanese proverb has it, until 1853, when they were rudely awakened from their dream of peace and security by Commodore Perry's breaking into the harbor of Uraga, with a

squadron of United States war vessels.

A quasi-treaty was made between him and the Empress and Shogunate at Uraga, March 31, 1854, and Japan after a withdrawal of 216 years once more entered the family



THE BAY OF HAKODATE

Treaty  
 with  
 United  
 States

of nations. Later in the same year, Admiral Stirling concluded a similar treaty on behalf of Great Britain. In 1858 these treaties were extended, and others were concluded with the Dutch and the French, under which the ports of Nagasaki, Hakodate, and Kanagawa (now known as Yokohama) were thrown open to foreign traders belonging to these nationalities from the year 1859. Other European powers gradually followed the example, and Japan at the present time carries on foreign commerce through nineteen open ports. As these ports were opened to foreign commerce, settlements, or foreign quarters, were set apart for the residence of foreigners under the jurisdiction of their own consuls. At first a limit of travel extending to a radius of twenty-five miles around these ports was granted. Foreign settlements were also established in Tokio and Osaka, these settlements being within the

prescribed twenty-five-mile limit of Yokohama and Kobe. Obstructions were placed in the way of foreign merchants settling at Yokohama and they were obliged to cross a narrow bay and establish their settlements there.

With the opening of these ports and the arrival of foreigners the fall of feudalism was greatly accelerated. For a long time many of the most powerful clans, chiefly Satsuma and Choshu, had been dissatisfied with the Shogun's position, and gladly availed themselves of the pretext for opposing him. All possible means were taken to involve him in complications with the ambassadors at his court, and to this motive rather than to any hatred of the foreigners must be ascribed the numerous assassinations which darkened the period immediately prior to 1868. Every weakening of his power was a step gained toward his overthrow and the longed-for unification of the empire in the hands of the Mikado, or emperor. At length the Shogun resigned, but it was only after a sharp civil war in the winter of 1867-68 that the power of his adherents was completely crushed. Recognizing Yeddo as the center of the nation's life, they resolved to make it the capital, but the name being distasteful through its association with the Shogunate, they renamed the city Tokio (eastern capital).

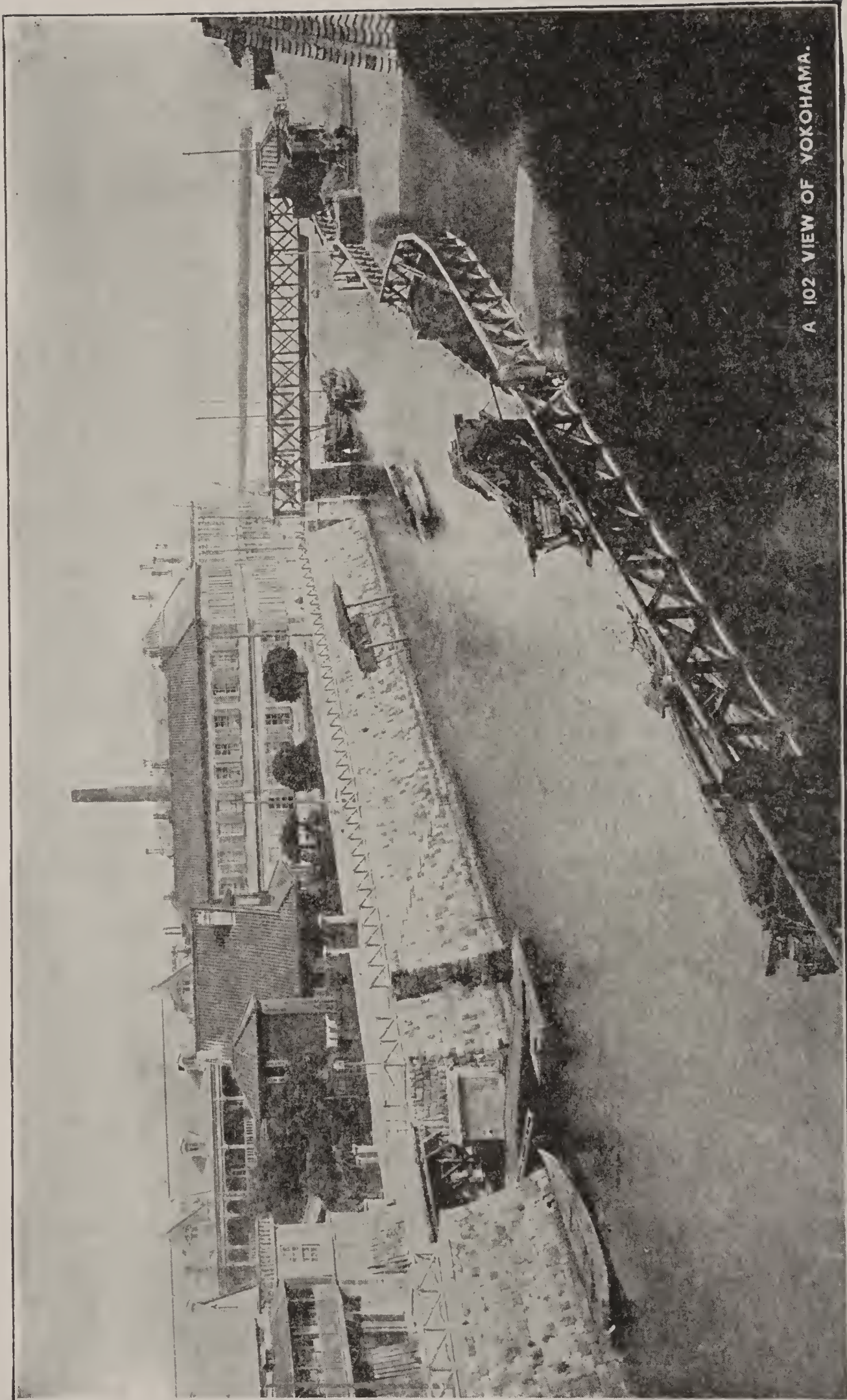
Here the Emperor established his court, abandoning forever that life of seclusion which had surrounded his ancestors with a halo of semi-divinity, but deprived them of all real power. The venerable city of Kioto, which had remained the capital since 794, was at the same time renamed Saikei (western capital). The remaining feudal lords, or Daimyos, very few of whom were more than mere weaklings under the direction of strong-willed retainers, resigned their fiefs, and were pensioned by the government. From 1868 the leading men of Satsuma and Choshu, forming what is known as the Sat-Cho combination, have held the important portfolios of state. At the outset of the trouble between the Mikado and Shogun the imperial party were decidedly retrogressive in their political ideas, but before its close they were convinced that without intercourse with foreign nations the greatness which they desired for their country could not be achieved; and when they once got into power they astonished the world with the thoroughness with which they broke loose from the old traditions, and entered on a course of enlightened reformation. A new period commenced

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JAPAN

Shogun  
Resigns  
1868



A 102 VIEW OF YOKOHAMA.

VIEW OF YOKOHAMA

with Mutsuhito, who has been named Meiji, meaning enlightened peace.

The ancient form of government was thus restored, and the feudal system became a thing of the past. Since this revolution Japan has become well known throughout the world.

The sudden change of front in 1868 was deliberate and final, one end having been kept in view all through, the independence and glory of Dai Nippon. So hurried an assimilation as was made necessary by her previous complete isolation, was naturally accompanied by numerous minor imprudences and extravagances, the results of ignorance. But the thoroughly patriotic spirit of the nation triumphed, and her administration quickly attained a highly satisfactory condition. With the restoration of the empire in 1868 came a change in the legal system of Japan. Before that time the legal systems were neither clearly defined nor fully developed. Indeed, they were rather primitive and simple, in their laws, organizations, modes of trial, and cruel punishments. A desire for the most enlightened institutions led Japan to turn to Europe and America for legal ideas, legal principles, and legal systems. It was resolved that there should be proper law courts, legally trained and independent judges, qualified lawyers, and a well-considered code of law for their guidance. Foreign lawyers were forthwith engaged to assist in making these changes, and several able, intelligent young men were sent to Europe and America to study law under selected teachers and in offices where they would see plenty of practise. Systems of law were imported wholesale from Germany, France, England, and America, and this importation of the fruit of long, slow development in other peoples, resulted in abnormally rapid substitution and replacement of the new for the old and established institutions of the Japanese. Their cruel and bloody codes had been borrowed mostly from the Chinese. Since the restoration, revised statutes and regulations have greatly decreased the lists of capital punishment, reformed the condition of prisons, and made legal processes less cruelly simple, but with elaboration of mercy and justice. In 1875 the principles of common law were revised and made more lenient. Another great step was made in the promulgation of a system for new trials in civil matters and of rules for litigation between the people and the government. This clear distinction which began to be made

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Legal  
Systems  
ChangedCourts of  
Appeal

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between the civil and the criminal laws shows as much as anything the great influence of the Western legal systems upon the Japanese. They established also courts of appeal and last resort. In 1890-91 a body of rules was promulgated and established for a complete new system of legal institutions for the empire. The new codes consisted of a commercial code, a code of civil procedure, and the whole civil code with the exception of the section referring to the law of personal relation.

As might be expected, the importation of codes of law by a single stroke of legislation has been in many respects a bad thing for Japan. Such codes are the result of a slow growth under far different circumstances. The old laws of Japan can not be replaced by a stroke of the pen, and the new codes are extraneously and artificially imposed. The country has not yet reached that stage when complicated judicial machinery can work satisfactorily, and when the distinction of judicial principles can be applied. This is due in a large measure to the position which the law as a vocation holds in Japanese society. The professional life is looked down upon as degrading, and young men of the best families do not enter it. A lawyer's remuneration is about the same as that of a mechanic. The judges are appointed for life, but are paid petty salaries; nor is there any mark of distinction for successful members of the bar, and the bench is not a position of honor to look forward to. At any rate, the legal systems are abnormal and not in accord with that degree of development which the Japanese have reached in life and thought, and in relation to the results of their application, can not be highly successful or satisfactory.

Profes-  
sional  
Life Not  
HonoredA Power  
in the  
East

Since 1868 Japan has striven to make her influence felt as a powerful factor in Asiatic politics. Her expedition to Formosa in 1874 to punish piracy, her annexation in 1879 of the Loo Choo islands, notwithstanding China's remonstrances and threats, her spirited policy in Korea in 1873, and again in 1882; her conscription law of 1883, and subsequent army reorganization; her development of a strong navy; her coast defense scheme of 1877, subscribed to liberally by wealthy private individuals,—prove her assertive spirit.

A rebellion in 1877 of the fiercer Satsuma men under General Saigo was promptly crushed. In 1887 the negotiations for a revision of the treaties were broken off owing to an outbreak of popular



dissatisfaction with the guarantees demanded by the seventeen foreign powers acting in concert. This breakdown was followed by a distinct conservative reaction in the nation. The position in which Japan has been placed during the past few decades is so exceptional that outsiders find great difficulty in forming a correct judgment of her political situation. On the surface there seems to be instability, but in fact there is no nation's history which has been more consistent than that of Japan.

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The assassination in 1887 of Okubo, chief of the party whose reforms gave rise to the Satsuma rebellion, was followed twelve years later by the assassination of Viscount Mori, a cabinet minister. Since the reconstruction of the cabinet and the administration in 1886, the court has emerged entirely from its seclusion. The Emperor and Empress have visited all the chief institutions, and are present on public occasions. The crown prince, Haru, was the first in the long dynasty to be educated at a public school.

A new nobility was created in 1884, drawn partly from the old feudal baronage and partly from the new men of 1868. It consists of five orders,—princes, or dukes, marquises, counts, viscounts, and barons,—who send representatives to the newly created Upper Chamber. The nation itself is divided into three classes, the nobility, gentry, and commonalty. The officials are divided into four classes, each grade being divided into distinctly marked subclasses, so that questions of precedence are quickly settled. Class jealousy is absent, and careers are open to the poorest.

The most important event in recent Japanese history was the war with China which broke out in 1894. Full particulars of this contest and its results are given in the chapter on China. This war did more to unify the Japanese people and to give them a national spirit than any other event in their whole history. It was a real example of the difference between a progressive and a secluded nation, and it confirmed them in their newly adopted ideas of becoming a power in the world. Their progress since the war has been little less than marvelous. There has been increased activity in the direction and means, in the system and methods, hitherto existing in the commerce, industries, and agriculture. Numerous societies have been formed to promote the material welfare of the nation; and commissioners and consuls have been sent all over the world to further Japan's commercial interests.

War  
 with  
 China  
 1894

## DIVISION II

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TION

## JAPAN

Political  
PartiesGovern-  
ment

While Japan is making rapid strides in an economic way, her political records of the past few years give evidence of considerable turmoil. During 1898 three cabinet changes took place. These changes were due to the different political parties which rose, and to the bickerings between different factions of the same party.

The system of government of the Japanese empire was that of an absolute monarchy. A new constitution was promulgated in 1889.

As we have seen, the ruling sovereigns overthrew the power of the Shogun, a *de facto* sovereign, who had held the ruling



JUDICIAL HARI-KIRI

A  
Cabinet

power in successive families since the twelfth century, and in 1871 the feudal system was entirely suppressed. By the constitution the succession to the throne has been definitely fixed upon the male descendants. By this constitution also the emperor is the head of the empire, combining in himself the rights of sovereignty, and exercising the whole of the executive powers with the advice and assistance of his cabinet ministers, who are responsible to him and are appointed by himself. There is also a Privy Council who deliberate upon important matters of state when they have been consulted by the emperor.

The emperor can declare war, make peace, and conclude treaties. He exercises the legislative power with the consent of the Imperial Diet. It is the prerogative of the emperor to give sanction to laws, to convoke the Imperial Diet, to open, close, and prorogue it, and to dissolve the House of Representatives.

The Imperial Diet consists of two houses,—a House of Peers, and a House of Representatives. The House of Peers is composed of (1) male members of the imperial family of the age of twenty and upwards; (2) princes and marquises of the age of twenty-five and upwards; (3) counts, viscounts, and barons of the age of twenty-five and upwards, and who have been elected by the members of their respective orders, never to exceed one fifth of each order; (4) persons above the age of thirty years, who have been nominated members by the emperor for meritorious service to the state or for erudition; (5) persons who shall have been elected in each Fu and Ken from among and by the fifteen male inhabitants thereof, of above the age of thirty years, paying therein the highest amount of direct national taxes on land, industry, or trade, and have been nominated by the emperor. The term of membership under the first, second, and fourth classes is for life; under the third and fifth for seven years. The entire membership of the House of Peers is about three hundred. The members of the House of Representatives number three hundred, a fixed number being returned from each election district. Every law requires the consent of the Imperial Diet. Both houses may respectively initiate projects of law, and make representations to the government as to laws or upon any other subject, and may present addresses to the emperor.

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 TION  
 JAPAN

Two  
 Houses  
 in  
 Imperial  
 Diet

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## KOREA

## KOREA

KOREA is a kingdom on the east coast of Asia, occupying a peninsula between the Sea of Japan and the Yellow Sea, and separated by the Strait of Korea from the Japanese Islands.

Early  
History

The earliest records of Korea date back to 1122 B. C., when the Ki-tze with 5,000 Chinese colonists brought to Korea Chinese art and politics. Down to 1894 Korea had remained nearly secluded. The first knowledge of the country obtained by the Western world came as a result of the shipwreck of some Dutchmen on the coast in 1653. Missionaries, however, had entered Korea at the end of the sixteenth century. In 1835 a permanent footing was gained in Korea by the missionaries, but in 1866, after thousands of converts had been put to death, the only three Catholic missionaries left had to flee for their lives. To avenge the death of these missionaries, the French government sent an expedition which, however, was repulsed, while a stranded American schooner was burned with her crew in sight of Phyong-yang. In 1871 the United States was baffled in the attempt to obtain redress.

Japan  
First in  
Korea

Japan was the first government to effect a footing in Korea. This was accomplished in 1876, when a treaty was concluded between the two countries. Korea followed this up by treaties with China and the United States in 1882, with Germany and Great Britain in 1883, with Italy and Russia in 1884, and with France in 1886. Three ports were opened to foreign trade. In these treaties Korea acted as an independent state. Up to July, 1894, when war was declared by Japan against China as the result of the uprising in Korea, the monarchy,\* which is hereditary, was practically absolute. The constitution, the penal code, and the system of official administration were framed on the Chinese

Govern-  
ment

\* The king is an independent sovereign, but his power is to a certain extent modified by the cabinet, which passes resolutions and frames laws which must be submitted to the king for ratification. The privileges of the aristocracy have been abolished, and the selection of officers for government posts is made by the ministers and officials of the first order, subject to the king's approval. The central government consists of eight departments or ministries of state. The departments are those of (1) the cabinet, (2) the home office, (3) the foreign office, (4) the treasury, (5) the war office, (6) education, (7) justice, (8) agriculture, trade, and industry. The local government is now administered in thirteen provinces, which are sub-divided into three hundred and thirty-nine districts.

model, except that the government was in the hands of a hereditary aristocracy, exclusive and corrupt.

Since early times Korea had acknowledged the suzerainty of China, a suzerainty which was denied by Japan, and which was one of the alleged causes of the war between China and Japan in 1894. By the treaty of peace in May, 1895, China renounced her claim, and under Japanese influence, with the aid of money borrowed from Japan, many constitutional changes have been introduced into Korea. For details of the war of 1894, see *China*, page 995.

Since the close of the "Yellow War," Korea has been an active figure in the Chinese question. The rush for cessions in Korea has been quite equal to that in China, though there has been no demand for territory on account of the fact that Korea was declared absolutely independent in the treaty between China and Japan, and also in a later treaty between Russia and Japan. Nevertheless, there has been a motion for the control of Korean affairs. In December, 1897, Russia caused the dismissal by the Korean government of its superintendent of customs and financial adviser, who was an Englishman, and asked for the appointment of a Russian. This act would practically have put the government of the kingdom entirely in the hands of the Russian ministry, and the change was in accord with the terms of a new agreement. However, the British minister twice returned notice of dismissal served on him, and the British government ordered a strong fleet to Chemulpo to enforce his protest. The result was a compromise by which the British and Russian customs' agents were appointed jointly to manage all the Korean customs.

If the unquiet little kingdom has to pass out of existence as a result of the greed of the Western world, it would seem that Japan has the first right on account of the war which she fought to free it from Chinese misgovernment. Though Russia and Japan are in treaty to preserve its independence, Russia covets it. England is watching Russia's schemes for its control, which have made some visible advances of late, notably the cession in December, 1897, by Korea, of Deer Island, situated in the Kusan Harbor of Japan Sea, for a Russian coaling station. A cession for the first railroad in Korea was secured in 1897 by an American firm. The railroad extends from Seoul, the capital, to its port at Chemulpo,

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KOREA

Korea  
Coveted  
by  
European  
Powers

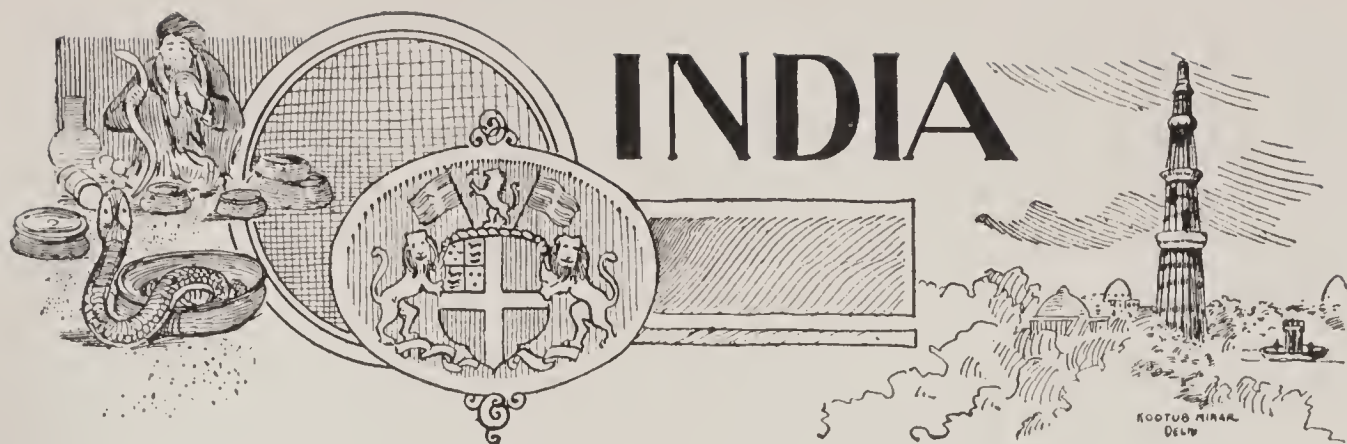
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CIVILIZA-  
TIONKOREA

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a distance of twenty-five miles. There is continual unrest in the little kingdom. This is illustrated by an attempt which was made September 11, 1898, to poison the king and crown prince of Korea. In November of the same year a riotous collision between the political reform party, known as the Independence Club, and their opponents occurred in Seoul, and resulted in several fatalities. The foreign residents were not attacked. The Japanese government was asked to send troops to preserve order. This club has for its object the riddance of corrupt office holders and courtiers.

The geographical situation of Korea makes it especially valuable from a commercial standpoint, and so long as the agitation in that section of the world continues, Korea will undoubtedly continue to be more or less an object of European covetousness.



## THE HISTORY OF INDIA

ALSO BURMA, BALUCHISTAN, SIKKIM, NEPAL, BHOTAN, AFGHAN-  
ISTAN, SIAM, AND CAMBODIA

[*Authorities:* Literature on India is very extensive. We shall mention here only some of the more popular and available books. For general history the works of Mill, Thornton, and Marshman (all London) are the best known. For special periods read Mountstuart Elphinstone, for the Mogul era; Keene, for the decline and fall of the Mogul empire; Grant-Duff, for the Mahrattas; Malleon, for the French in India; Kaye, for the first Afghan war; Kaye and Malleon, for the war of the mutinies in 1857-58; Trotter and Maine, for the Victorian era. Much light is derivable from the biographies of Clive, Warren Hastings, Metcalfe, Macaulay, the Lawrences (Henry and John), Mayo, and Dalhousie. The reports by the British government on the moral and material progress of the country, and the volume of statistics published annually by the Indian Office in London, afford the best current information. Similarly the *Imperial Gazetteer of India* (2d ed. 14 vols. 1885-87), edited by Sir William Hunter, and his *Indian Empire*, in one volume, are most useful. *Modern India*, by Campbell, *Modern India and the Indians*, by Monier Williams (1889), *India Past and Present*, by Samuelson (1889), and *India in 1880*, by Temple, represent the country as it was under the East India Company in the middle of this century, and as it is under the crown toward the century's close. The history of ancient India in its purely native condition remains to be written, in English at least. *The Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society* and the *Calcutta Review*, however, supply quite a mine of materials. Some light is thrown on this great subject by Tod's *Rajasthan*, Rajendralal Mitra's *Antiquities of Orissa*, Rhys Davids on Buddhism, Framji on the Parsees, Talboys Wheeler's *Mahábhárata* and *Rámáyana*, abstracted in English; Max Müller's analysis of Oriental religions.]



INDIA is the name properly given to the whole of the British-Indian empire, which includes Burma, but popularly restricted to the great central peninsula of southern Asia. It forms an irregular triangle, insulated from the rest of Asia by the almost impassable ranges of the Himalayas, the Hindu-Kush, the Suleiman Mountains, and by the Indian Ocean.

India may be regarded as consisting of three separate regions, well-defined by differences of soil, climate, productions, and popu-

Three  
Separate  
Regions

## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## INDIA

Early  
History  
in  
Sanskrit

lation. The first is the region of the Himalayas, the second the vast North Indian plain, immediately south of the Himalayas, and the third is the triangular plateau of the Deccan, which has a general elevation of from 2,000 to 3,000 feet.

As the Hindus never had any historical writings, all the information to be obtained respecting the original inhabitants of India is gleaned from popular poems and the accounts of foreigners. The earliest history is obscurely written in the myths of Sanskrit literature, but the first fact of any certainty is that about the year 2000 B. C., or even earlier, an Aryan people of comparatively high civilization, descended from the mountain region of the northwest into the plains of India, and subdued the original inhabitants there. According to Hindu tradition and to the popular legends of their bards, their kingdom was at first divided between two principal families, the families of the "Sun" and "Moon." These were both said to be descended from Brahma, originally, and from the Patriarchs Baksha and Atri, his sons. The whole course of the political history of ancient India shows it to have been a country divided among numerous petty rajahs, constantly at variance with one another, and incapable of securing their subjects from the inroads of their neighbors, or the invasions of foreign enemies.

Ancient  
Religion

The ancient religion of the Hindus, as represented in the Sanskrit Vedas, seems to have been little more than the worship of fire and the elements. The attributes of a supreme being were afterward personified, and they worshipped as deities Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva.

The first among Western nations to discover this country were the Egyptians and Phœnicians. Soon after the destruction of the Babylonian monarchy by the Persians, Darius undertook an expedition against India, and this leader is said to have subdued the people and become the master of a part of the territory. The revenue derived from what he did conquer, according to Herodotus, was nearly one half of that of the whole Persian empire. The expedition of Alexander the Great to the Indus in 326 B. C. affords a momentary glimpse of that part of India, but between his invasion and the Mohammedan conquest there is little authentic political history of India. In the third century B. C., Buddhism was established throughout the country, but it afterward entirely gave way to Brahmanism.

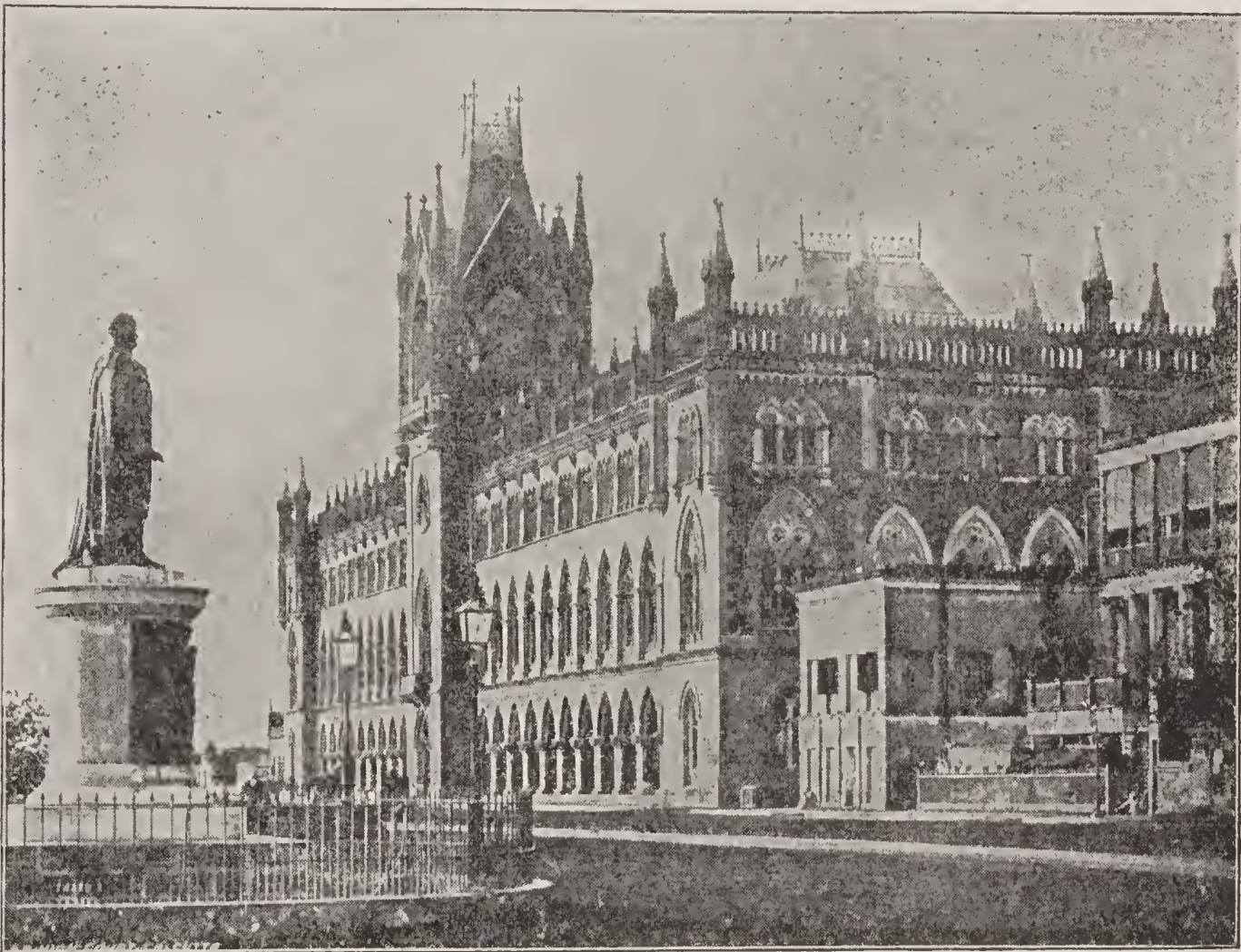


The first six centuries of the Christian era were occupied by a struggle between the native dynasty and invaders from the north-west. In the eighth century the tide of Mohammedan conquest began with Kasim's advance into the Sind, 711 A. D.; but the Mohammedans were again driven out in 828, and for more than one hundred and fifty years afterward the strong feudal and tribal organization of the northern Hindu kingdoms was a barrier to the advance of the Mussulmen.

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INDIA



HIGH COURT, CALCUTTA

In 1001 Mahmud of Ghazni invaded India through the passes of the Suleiman Mountains. From this time onward the history of India can be fully understood from abundant materials, though the details are intricate. Several Mohammedan dynasties in succession established themselves at Delhi, others at Mandu in the Vindhya, at Ahmedabad on the west coast, and at five places in the Deccan, of which the two most famous are Golconda and Bijapur. At all these points architectural remains bear witness to culture and power. Thus almost all India fell under Mohammedan dominion.

Moham-  
medan  
Dynas-  
ties Es-  
tablished

About the year 1200 the Mongol, Genghis Khan, devastated the

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INDIA

The  
"Great  
Mogul"

northwestern part of the country. Succeeding Mongol invasions were repelled by the Indian Mohammedans, but in 1397 the Tatar Timur, or Tamerlane, advanced to Delhi, and proclaimed himself emperor of India. This title lapsed for awhile, till in 1525 his descendant, Baber, revived it, and became the first who bore the famous title of the "Great Mogul." His descendants subdued one by one most of the Mohammedan states in the upper half of India, and became emperors in reality; but the states in the southern half preserved independence, more or less. Baber's grandson, Akbar the Great, made this empire effective with the aid of a Hindu minister, Todur Mul. He was perhaps the greatest sovereign that India has ever seen. His code of regulations, the Ayin-i-Akberi, is still studied. His reign and the reigns of his three successors were splendid, and their architectural remains evince an artistic culture hardly surpassed in any age or country. Of these three the last was Aurungzebe, a man of masterful ability, disfigured by a cruel bigotry. In his time the empire began to shake, and a new Hindu power was set up — the Mahrattas. After his death in 1707, the decline and fall of the Mogul empire set in rapidly. In the cataclysm which followed, four fresh Mohammedan kingdoms rose to the surface; viz., that of the Nawab Wazir of Oudh, that of the Nizam of Hyderabad in the Deccan, that of the Nawab of the Carnatic, that of Hyder Ali and Tippoo at Seringapatam in Mysore. All four are much heard of in the eighteenth century. After the fall of the empire, the titular Great Mogul remained at Delhi until 1857.

Moham-  
medan  
Rule

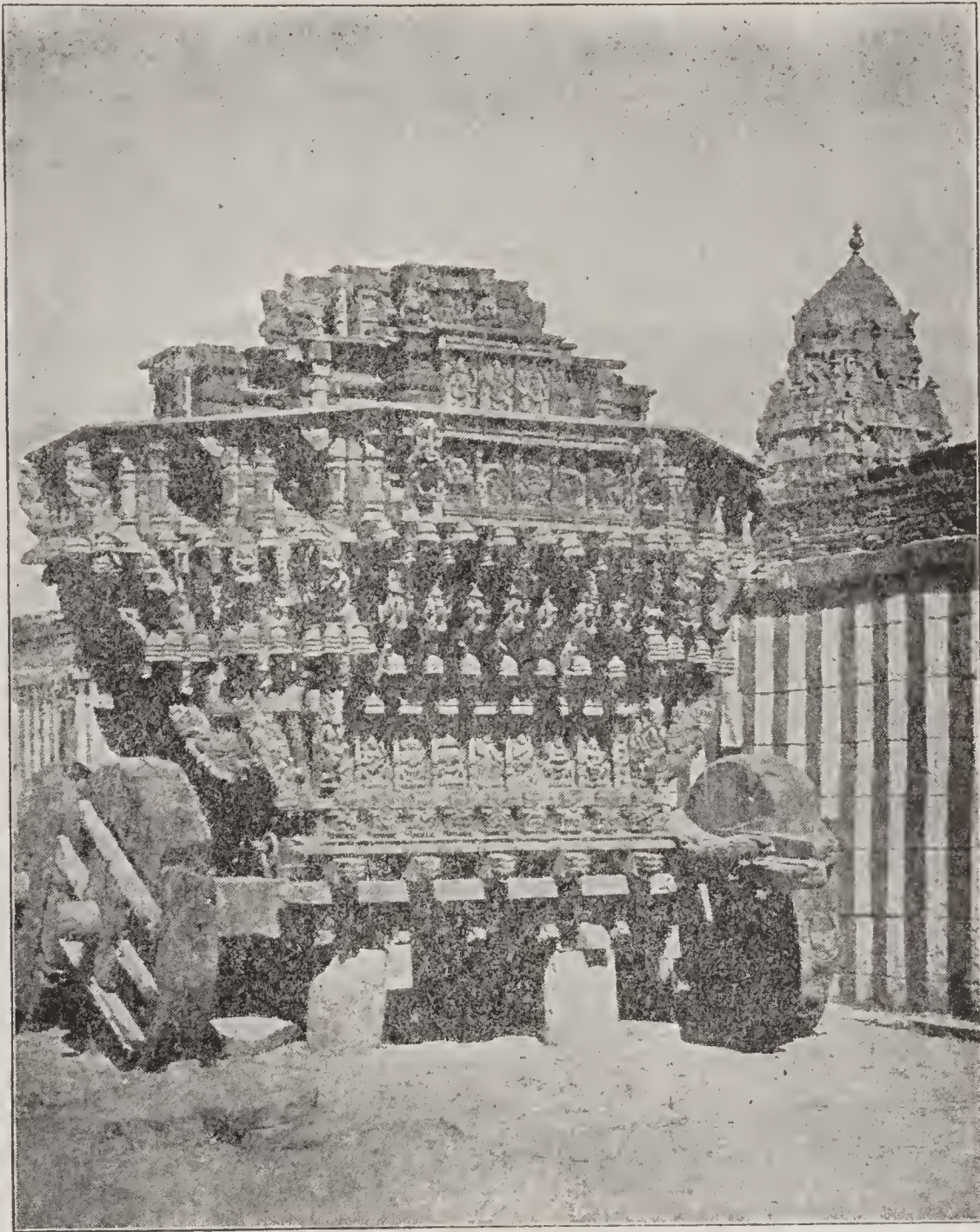
The Mohammedan system inculcated simplicity of faith and morals. It was bitterly opposed to idolatry, and was at first iconoclastic, but in the end it extended toleration to Hinduism. It fairly respected the landed property and endowments of that religion. It introduced some fresh ideas, and imparted some breadth of ideas generally, and some improved notions of statesmanship and organization. Otherwise it produced but little effect upon Hindu civilization. It imposed its own official language and its own criminal law; but it maintained civil laws and customs for the most part. It undertook no public instruction save that which was Moslem. It planted Moslems all about the country, but did not convert the indigenous people in large numbers anywhere except in one quarter. This exception was eastern Bengal, where the

inhabitants embraced the Moslem faith; but how this came about is a question not settled. It has been conjectured that Buddhism survived here without caste, and that the inhabitants were not unwilling to adopt Mohammedanism as a casteless faith. Be this as it may, the eastern Bengal population has multiplied till it

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CAR OF JUGGERNAUT

amounts to nearly 25,000,000, and is the largest Mohammedan people now existing in any one country. Finally, the Mohammedan power endured so long as it was recruited from trans-Himalayan regions and the hardy north: it soon lost its strength when its supporters came to dwell from generation to generation in the hot country below the mountains.

The rising of the Mahrattas against the Mohammedan dominion

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 INDIA  
 Rise of  
 the Mah-  
 rattas

was begun in 1657 by Sivaji in the western Ghats. Their dominion advanced as that of the Great Mogul receded. It was a low-caste Hindu confederation, with a hereditary Brahmin chief at its head, under the title of Peshwa, at Poona in the Deccan. Though it absorbed the Mogul empire, it never overcame the fresh Moham- medan states before mentioned; but it was the principal power existing when the Europeans appeared in force on the scene. It governed its native Deccan territories tolerably well, and to the north of them it founded several states which still endure prosperously. Still, it had less civilization than any power since the Vedic-Aryan invasion, and it threw many parts of the country into confusion. Under its shadow some fresh evils sprang up, such as Thuggee and the organized bandit system known as Pindarry. During this hapless time occurred irruptions under the Persian Nadir Shah and the Afghan Ahmed Shah; but these invaders came, slew, sacked, devastated, and turned back again without permanently affecting the country.

The  
 Sikhs

In the overthrow of the Mogul power that ensued, there arose a fresh system in the Punjab,\* — the Sikh.† A prophet arose named

Punjab

\* The Punjab, "five rivers," is a separate province of India, occupying the northwest corner, is watered by the Indus and its five great affluents — the Jhelum, Chenab, Ravi, Beas, and Sutlej. It is bounded on the west by Afghanistan, on the north by Cashmere, on the east by the Jumna and the Northwestern Provinces, and on the south by Rajputana and Sind. The area under direct British administration is 106,632 square miles; that of the native states, thirty-four in number, under British control is 35,817 square miles.

The  
 Sikhs

† The Sikhs, a religious sect of northern India, became a great military confederacy. The sect was founded by Baba Nanak (born in 1469), who rejected the institution of caste, idolatry, and superstition, preached the existence of one spiritual God, and inculcated a higher moral life. He was followed in the headship of the sect — "Sikhs" means "followers" or "disciples" — by ten "gurus" or chief priests. The third of these excavated the sacred tank at Amritsar; and his son, Arjun Mal, built, toward the end of the sixteenth century, the holy temple, in the tank at Amritsar, which became the headquarters of the Sikh religion. The same guru first edited the *Adi Granth*, the sacred book of the Sikhs. As time went on, the adherents of the sect, principally Jats by race, gradually becoming conscious of their numbers and their growing power, began to adopt something of a military organization in addition to their religious discipline. This end — converting them into a powerful military community — was deliberately pursued by the guru Govind Rai (1675–1708); he adopted the appellative Singh (or Sing; better Sinh, "lion") as a generic family-name for all members of the sect, strengthened the bonds of personal discipline, and revised the sacred book so as to bring it into harmony with the altered aims and position of the Sikhs.

On the downfall of the Mogul power, shortly after the middle of the eighteenth century, the Sikhs formed themselves into a number of tribal and territorial confederacies, some of which were virtually independent states. Their religious fanaticism was

Baba Nanak, who preached a reformation of Hinduism. He was followed by Govind Singh, who established the system by force of arms in the Punjab, and even so far as the Jumna. Thence arose a Sikh dynasty, which lasted till the middle of the nineteenth century. This essentially Hindu power cut off the Indian Moham- medans from what had been their original base in Afghanistan, and left them isolated amidst their foes.

In the time of the Moguls and the Mahrattas several European nationalities appeared in India as travelers, traders, and mission- aries. The Dutch had several settlements, of which the memory

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French  
 and  
 English  
 Contest  
 for India

fanned by a body of devotees, who dedicated themselves to warlike pursuits; and the Sikhs greatly extended their possessions. It was, however, Ranjit Singh, a young and warlike chieftain, who converted the Sikh confederacies into a powerful and formidable military power, by welding the separate confederacies into one organic whole and carry- ing his arms westward, northward, and southward. On the east alone he made no conquests; he had in 1809 concluded a treaty of peace with the British, whose authority reached to the Sutlej, which was the eastern boundary of the Sikh dominions. This agreement Ranjit faithfully kept; but at his death he left an army of 124,000 men, animated by a warlike spirit and inspired by religious enthusiasm — a force that had been thoroughly organized and drilled by French officers on the European system. But there was none among his immediate descendants capable of taking up the scepter he let fall, and wielding it with the same energy and skill. Amid the anarchy that followed his death, the soldiers of his armies clamored to be led against the forces of the British; and accordingly, in December, 1845, they crossed the Sutlej, and invaded British territory. Their advance guard was, however, routed by Sir Hugh Gough at Mudki (December 18), though not without heavy loss to the British. The main body entrenched them- selves at Firozshah, twelve miles east of the river; but their camp was stormed, after two days' desperate fighting, by Sir Hugh Gough and Sir Henry Hardinge (governor- general) on December 21 and 22. Another Sikh army that crossed the river was defeated and driven back at Aliwal (January 28, 1846); and on the 10th of February Gough and Hardinge totally crushed and dispersed the Sikh forces at Sobraon. The British at once captured Lahore, and on March 9 following, peace was signed between the combatant parties, the Sikhs ceding the districts between the rivers Sutlej and Ravi, and subse- quently, in lieu of a money indemnity, Cashmere, the hill-country of Hazara, and some other portions of territory.

Two years later wars broke out again, caused, as the first conflict was, by Sikh fanaticism: two British officers were massacred at Multan in April, 1848. And although the British attempted to check the movement at its beginning, the war became general. Multan was taken; but the battle of Chillianwala (January 13, 1849) was left undecided, in spite of very heavy losses on the British side. At Gujrat, however, on February 21, Gough finally crushed the Sikhs, and effectually broke their power. After this the Punjab was annexed to British India. And so successfully was its government organized and administered by Lord Dalhousie and John and Henry Lawrence that on the out- break of the Mutiny the Sikhs not only refrained from joining the rebel sepoys, but gave very material assistance in quelling that formidable outbreak. The Sikhs still constitute about one tenth of the population of the Punjab.

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still remains. The Portuguese, after the discoveries of Vasco da Gama, controlled virtually the whole west coast, excepting Bombay, then a small place. Their headquarters were at Goa, on the coast south of Bombay, which became a town and a harbor of the first rank in the eighteenth century. The Portuguese influence affected civilization in the western region to a perceptible degree.

In the eighteenth century the position of the French rivaled that of the English; the wars between the two nations were carried into



SUMAREE TEMPLE, BENARES

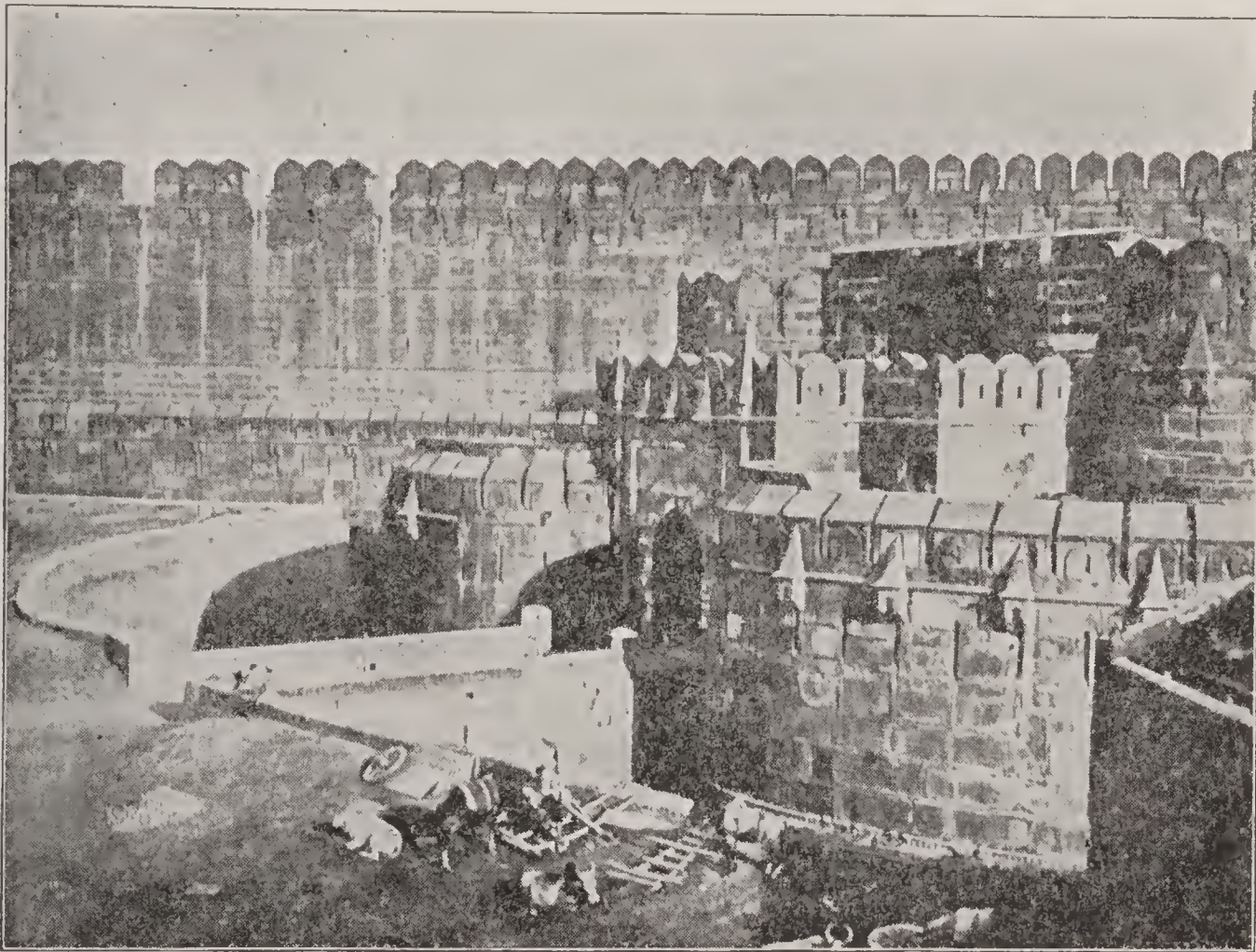
the East, and the contest was waged on the waters as well as on the land of India. The name of the great Frenchman Dupleix is respected by the British in India as the worthiest of foemen. Thus, the British had to contend simultaneously with French rivals as well as native enemies on Indian soil.

The British became a dominating influence from the battle of Plassey in 1757, won by Clive over the Mogul, which gave to England the dominion of Bengal and Behar, the most populous provinces in the whole country. The British East India Company had been settled in India since 1653. It had three trading settle-

British  
East  
India  
Company

ments on or near the coasts of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. These grew into establishments for fighting and governing, and the territorial nucleus thus formed soon expanded. The acquisition of Bengal with Behar raised the company's territories into a dominion of magnitude. Thus the company in the latter half of the eighteenth century appeared as one of the powers. It really rose on the ruins of the Mahratta dominion. Within sixty years from Plassey, that is by 1818, when Poona, under the last of the Pesh-

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DELHI GATE, FORT AT AGRA

was, fell to the British, the East India Company was the master of India as far as the Indus basin, but not in the Punjab nor in Sind. Within these limits it had acquired the whole basin of the Ganges, and the coast districts on both sides of the peninsula. The Great Mogul, now powerless, was under its care at Delhi. It had conquered the Mohammedan state in Mysore and restored a Hindu sovereign there. The two Mohammedan states of Oudh and Hyderabad (Deccan) were its dependent allies, though with all honor. It was maintaining many native states, Hindu and Mahratta, in the same position. Among these must be included (after severe fighting) Nepal, the one Himalayan state which was

States

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capable of waging war, and which had contended sturdily with British forces. The Pindarries, who raised a robber organization almost to the rank of a power, had been subdued. The British dominion had been founded by Clive, preserved during a world-wide crisis for England by Warren Hastings, extended by Cornwallis, and still farther advanced by Wellesley, and almost perfected by the Marquis of Hastings. By 1828 there was a general peace throughout India after centuries of internal war and revolution.

How far the East India Company was the aggressor in any of these transactions may be a controversial question. It was often induced to participate in the contests of the native states among themselves; in self-defense it had to fight the combinations formed against its very existence; and being the victor, it had to deal with the vanquished. Thus by various means the fabric of its dominion rose. It had raised a large native army and some European forces of its own, but these had to be sustained by royal troops from England; consequently on each renewal of its charter, the company passed more and more under the control of the British government.

The next imperial step was in 1825, when the first Burmese war occurred under Amherst; it ended in some acquisition of territory, which was the beginning of a new dominion across the waters of the Bay of Bengal. There was then a development of peaceful civilization under Lord William Bentinck till 1835. But in 1838 it was decided to set up a native sovereign in Afghanistan under British protection, as a means of guarding the northwestern frontier. This led to the first Afghan war, after which the British evacuated that country. This was the first check in a victorious career of eighty years since Plassey.

British  
 Defeat in  
 Afghan-  
 istan

There remained the basin of the Indus yet unconquered, that is, Sind and the Punjab; the former was conquered under Ellenborough, the latter under Hardinge and Dalhousie, after severe fighting in two wars, in which the Sikhs were the aggressors. Thus the Sikh kingdom so ably founded by Ranjit Singh succumbed. Then at length it was said that not a shot could be fired in anger throughout India without leave of the British government. Under Dalhousie also a second war broke out with the Burmese; the result extended British dominion over the delta of the Irawadi. At this time all the works of peace, moral and



material, were prosecuted. Shortly after Dalhousie had handed over his charge to Canning, the mutiny in the Bengal native army broke out in 1857.

A crisis arose, of which the dimensions can readily be gauged by the reader who has followed the facts already set forth in this chapter. After the occurrence of some isolated mutinies in the Bengal native soldiery, generally called sepoys, during the early part of 1857, the native portion of the garrison at Meerat, near Delhi,

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INDIA  
—

Crisis of  
1857



FACADE, GOLDEN TEMPLE

broke out on May 10; the European garrison failed to prevent them, and the mutineers marched straightway to Delhi, and were joined by the native troops there and by the city mob.

The rebels set up as emperor the titular Great Mogul, who dwelt in the ancestral palace there under British protection, and proclaimed the restoration of the Mogul empire. This event was rapidly followed by the revolt of almost the whole native army of the Bengal Presidency. Their comrades of the Bombay Presidency were but slightly affected, and those of Madras hardly at all. At that time the native forces numbered more than 247,000 men of

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all arms; of these about 50,000 belonged to Madras, 30,000 to Bombay, and the remainder to Bengal; among the latter, however, were many troops called irregular. A large part of the irregular troops remained stanch, but of the Bengal regular troops only seven battalions continued in service. From 80,000 to 90,000 soldiers, horse and foot, were in revolt, having in many cases murdered their officers, and sometimes the European families also. The mutineers, too, who were cantoned over many stations in broad provinces, held forts, arsenals, and treasuries. They were armed with British weapons, had been organized with British discipline, were in possession of much artillery, of a great number of cavalry horses and other transports, and of vast sums of treasure. In Hindustan, in Oudh, and in parts of Malwa, throughout the summer the British power was insulated at certain points, such as the camp before Delhi, the cantonment at Meerut, the fortresses at Agra and Allahabad, the weak fortification at Lucknow. Elsewhere the European magistracy with their families had been either killed or hunted away, and the court-houses with their records burned. The disaster extended over an area of at least 100,000 square miles, with a population of forty millions. It occurred, too, at the worst season of the year. If not speedily stamped out, the fire must spread over the whole country.

Centenary of  
 Noted  
 Events

The year was a centenary of historic events. It was just one hundred years since Clive founded British dominion at Plassey, and two hundred years since Sivaji, the Mahratta, struck a deadly blow at the Moslem power. Many an enemy thought that the knell of the empire had sounded. And certainly, unless the resources of the British Isles could be brought to bear upon the scene of the revolt within a few months, the British authority would be narrowed to its three original seats; namely, the presidency towns resting on the sea board.

At that time there were 40,000 European troops in the country. Several thousand men on their way from England to China, at Lord Elgin's disposal, were, with his co-operation, diverted to India. Some 40,000 European soldiers were despatched from England around the Cape of Good Hope by a sea voyage of 12,000 miles. Meanwhile the disasters at Cawnpore and elsewhere in Hindustan had been partially retrieved by Henry Havelock. At the outset, a force, largely consisting of Europeans, marched

against Delhi. After a severe siege of four months, the place was recaptured by assault. The communications had been maintained continuously with the Punjab, under John Lawrence, as a base whence re-enforcements were derived. Native troops were raised from the loyal Punjab in place of the mutineers of Hindustan.

Lucknow, for a long while after the death of Henry Lawrence besieged by rebels, was first relieved and afterward recaptured by a European force under Colin Campbell. The districts were speed-

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Siege of  
Lucknow

KAISER PAISUND, LUCKNOW

ily reoccupied by British authority. Though many influential individuals, some chiefs and princes, and some classes, including the worst part of the mob, had joined the rebellion, or rather the military revolt, still the mass of the people in these districts had remained passive, and readily returned to their allegiance. The principal native princes and their states had set up an important example of loyalty. Within six months of the outbreak the imperial danger was surmounted, though troubles lasted here and there, and the embers smoldered for more than a year, especially in the hilly parts of the central regions. The cost of suppressing this rebellion is reckoned at two hundred million dollars.

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Unlike all the earlier foreign dynasties, the British power has never been naturalized or domesticated in the country, but was then, as ever, recruited constantly from the British Isles. Its officers serving in the country had been born and educated in Europe, and possessed as a reserve against danger all the imperial qualities of their race.

Causes  
 of  
 Mutiny

Many causes were assigned for the Indian mutiny. The greased cartridges served out to some of the Bengal troops operated as an immediate provocation. The Brahmans were too numerous in the ranks; they were fanatical, and they had the brains to contrive mischief when discontented. The Kabul disaster had broken the spell of invincibility. Certain chiefs near the scene of the outbreak were laboring under a sense of wrong, real or supposed. Some native states had been alarmed at British policy with regard to the right of adoption. The annexation of Oudh, however righteous in itself, had induced many Mohammedan conspirators to excite mutiny, and to turn it to political account. This brought about a very unusual combination between Mohammedans and Hindus. Still these and other lesser causes would never by themselves have brought about such a crisis as that which has been described.

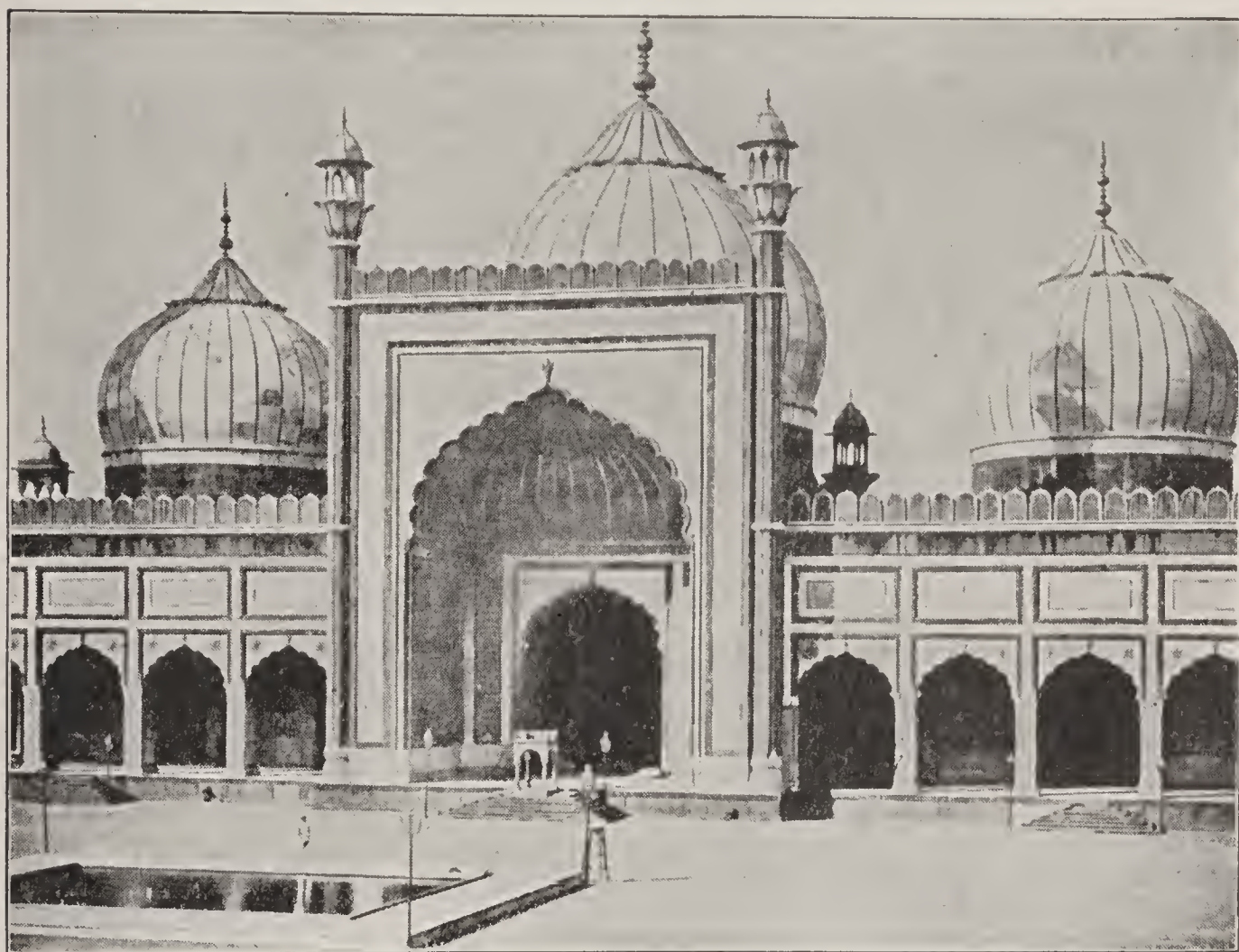
Prime  
 Cause of  
 Mutiny

The prime, the fundamental cause, was a large and simple fact; namely, that the native forces were much too large relatively to the European. There was only one European soldier to six native soldiers, whereas now there is one to two. The sepoy then had the physical force in their hands, and they knew it. The distribution, too, of these excessive numbers aggravated the peril. The sepoy were, as already seen, in charge of the stations containing the state resources, civil as well as military. It was the sense of power which gave them the mind to revolt. Their interests, including employment, pay, pension, and the like, were indeed bound up with the British rule. The government was ever slow to believe that the men would revolt to the destruction of their own prospects. But their conduct proves that there are moments when religious fanaticism, national sentiment, pride, and passion will prevail over self-interest. The occurrence was only a question of time, and many will wonder why it did not happen before. But an analysis of historic circumstances would show that never before had a complete opportunity offered. Mutiny of particular bodies

of troops had often occurred, and had been overcome. Thus the British authorities came to be insufficiently alive to the symptoms which portended the events of 1857.

The crisis past, no time was lost in rectifying the military faults which had rendered the revolt possible. The native troops were reduced in number, the European troops were augmented. The physical predominance at all strategic points was placed in the hands of European soldiers, and almost the whole of the artillery was manned by European gunners.

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 TION  
 INDIA



COURT FACADE, JANRI MUSJID, DELHI

Peace and order having been restored to the empire in 1858, various changes, constitutional and other, were made. The East India Company, the greatest corporation ever known to history, ceased to exist, and the government\* was assumed by the British

East  
 India  
 Company  
 Sup-  
 planted  
 by  
 British  
 Crown

\*The present form of government of the Indian empire was established by an act which was sanctioned August 2, 1858. By this act all the territories heretofore under the government of the East India Company, are vested in Her Majesty, and all its powers are exercised in her name. All territorial and other revenues, and all tributes and other payments, are likewise received in her name, and disposed of for the purposes of the government of India alone. The executive authority of India is vested in a governor-

Govern-  
 ment of  
 Indian  
 Empir

crown. The army was reorganized so as to guard against the danger from which the country had just been saved. As compared with the relative proportions of former times, the European force was doubled, while the native force was reduced by more than one third. Thus, as already seen, the Europeans and the natives were as one to two; moreover, the Europeans were placed in charge of the strategic and dominant position, so that the physical power was now in their hands. The dominion was consolidated by the work of peace under successive viceroys, Elgin, Lawrence, Mayo, Northbrook, with material improvement and moral progress. The next viceroy was the Marquis of Lansdowne, who took office in 1888, and was succeeded five years later by the Right Honorable Victor Alexander Bruce, Earl of Elgin and Kincardine. He was succeeded in 1898 by Right Honorable George N. Curzon, M. P. In 1878, under Lytton, a second Afghan war was waged, which led to the strengthening of the northwestern frontier.\* The work of peace was continued under Ripon till 1884, when under Dufferin, it became necessary to proceed against the king of Ava, and sub-

general, a commonly but not officially styled viceroy, appointed by the Crown, and acting under orders of the secretary of state for India. The governor-general is vested to make laws for all persons, whether British or native, foreigners or others, within the Indian territory, under the dominion of Her Majesty, and for all subjects of the Crown within the dominion of Indian princes, and States in alliance with Her Majesty. The government of the Indian empire is entrusted to a secretary of state for India, assisted by a council of not less than ten members, vacancies in which are now filled up by the secretary of state for India. But the major part of the council must be of persons who have served or resided ten years in India, and have not left India more than ten years previous to the date of their appointment. The office is held for a term of ten years.

India is administratorily divided into British territory and native or feudal states. The former is under the direct control in all respects, of British officials. The control which the supreme government exercises over the native states varies in degree, but they are all governed by the native princes, ministers, and council, with the help and under the advice of a resident or agent in political charge over a single state or group of states. The supreme government can exercise the right of dethronement of the chiefs in case of misgovernment. Some of the states are required to pay an annual tribute. With others this is nominal or not demanded.

**Khyber  
 Pass**

\* Khyber Pass, the great northern military road between the Punjab and Afghanistan, winds in a northwesterly direction for thirty-three miles between the projecting spurs of two enclosing ranges of hills. The pass is merely the bed of a narrow watercourse, and varies in width from one hundred and fifty yards to twenty, though in one place it is only "ten feet or less." It is liable at times to be suddenly flooded. The mountains on either side are in many places perpendicular walls of smooth rock, and can be climbed only in a few places; they vary in height from 1,404 to 3,373 feet. Over the roughest parts of the pass artillery has to be dragged by men. The Khyber Pass has been the key of the adja-

sequently to annex Upper Burma. This measure, following previous annexations, brought the whole Burmese dominion and the entire region of the Irawadi within the Indian empire in contact with southwestern China.

DIVISION II  
 ASIATIC  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 INDIA

### BURMA.

BURMA is the largest of all the provinces of the Indian empire. It stretches over Tibet southward for eleven hundred miles, far down the Malay Peninsula, and over the Chinese border for seven hundred miles westward to the Bay of Bengal. It is conterminous with China and Siam on the east, and for the rest it is bounded by the Indian provinces of Bengal and Assam, and by the ocean. This country consists of the great basin of the Irawadi and its affluents. About one third of the territory belongs to the old province of Lower Burma, and two thirds to the province of Upper Burma, the capital of which is Mandalay.

Burma



MADINA TEMPLE AND ROYAL SEPULCHER

cent regions in either direction from the days of Alexander the Great. During the Afghan wars of 1839-42 it was twice traversed by a British army, in spite of an obstinate defense by the natives. The first fighting in the Afghan war of 1878-80 was in forcing an entrance into this pass. It was stipulated in the treaty of Gandamak (1879) that the Anglo-Indian authorities were in future to have full control of this pass.

DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

INDIA

BURMA

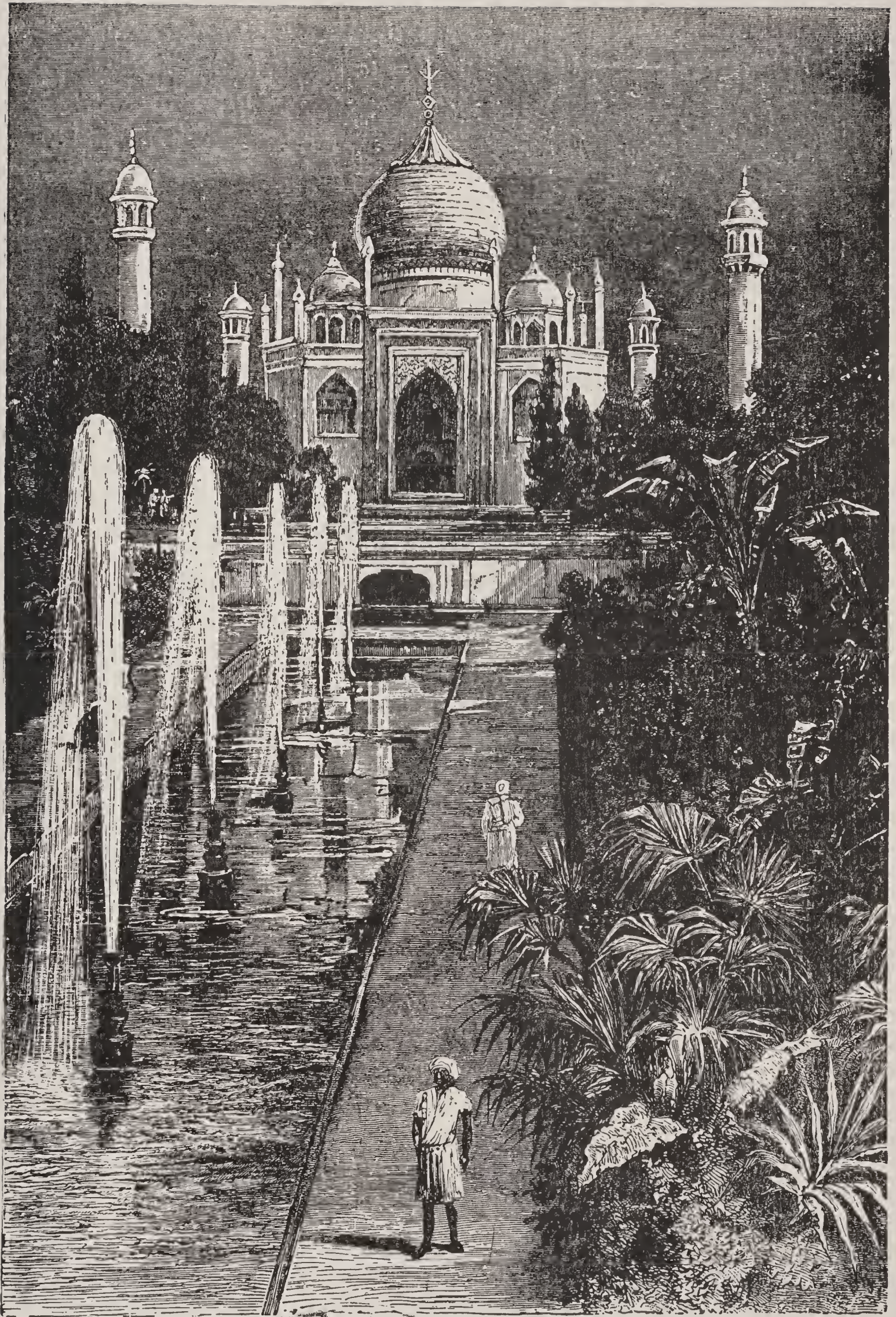
Burmese  
Lan-  
guage

The earliest Burmese dynasty is said to have come from the Buddhist monarchs in India. It is conjectured that the Buddhists came into the Irawadi Valley from the highlands of central Asia about 100 B. C., and amalgamated with the races then living in the country. It seems certain that the Buddhist religion and a Buddhist dynasty were established on the Irawadi, perhaps near Prome, about the time of the Norman Conquest. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries flourished Burmese kings who had their capital at Pagan on the Irawadi, about two hundred miles from the sea, where are still extant most remarkable groups of temples built by that dynasty. In those days Burmese was a written language, and the Pagan kings had a civilized court. After that time the seat of power was transferred at intervals to Pegu, to Toungoo, to Prome, to Sagain, and to Ava. The empire was wrested from the Burmese, and held for a short time by the Shans, and by the Talaings, a race who had preceded the Burmans in the Irawadi delta. In the sixteenth century a European traveler visited the court at Pegu, and recorded an account of its magnificence. During the seventeenth century settlements in the Irawadi delta were made by the French and the English. At Syriam, near Rangoon, the Portuguese had established themselves nearly two centuries earlier. The last Burman dynasty was founded by Alomprau (Ahompya), a Burman villager of Monshobo (Shwebo), fifty miles north of Mandalay. He rose against the Pegu king in 1753, and eventually established his power over Burma in 1757, but died at the head of his army during an invasion of Siam. His successor carried Burmese arms to Arakan, Manipur, and the capital of Siam. During the latter part of the eighteenth century Siam revolted, and Burma suffered three invasions by Chinese armies from the north.

Burmese  
in  
Contact  
with  
British

Early in the nineteenth century the Burmese conquered Assam, and about 1820 they first came in contact with the British power in India. The Burmese made incursions into British territory, maltreated British subjects, attacked British troops, and refused repeated demands for redress. In 1824 broke out a war which ended (February, 1826) with the Yandabo treaty, whereby Ava ceded to the British the provinces of Arakan and Tenasserim. For a while the Burmese observed the treaty. But after 1830, when a new king succeeded to the throne, slights and insults were



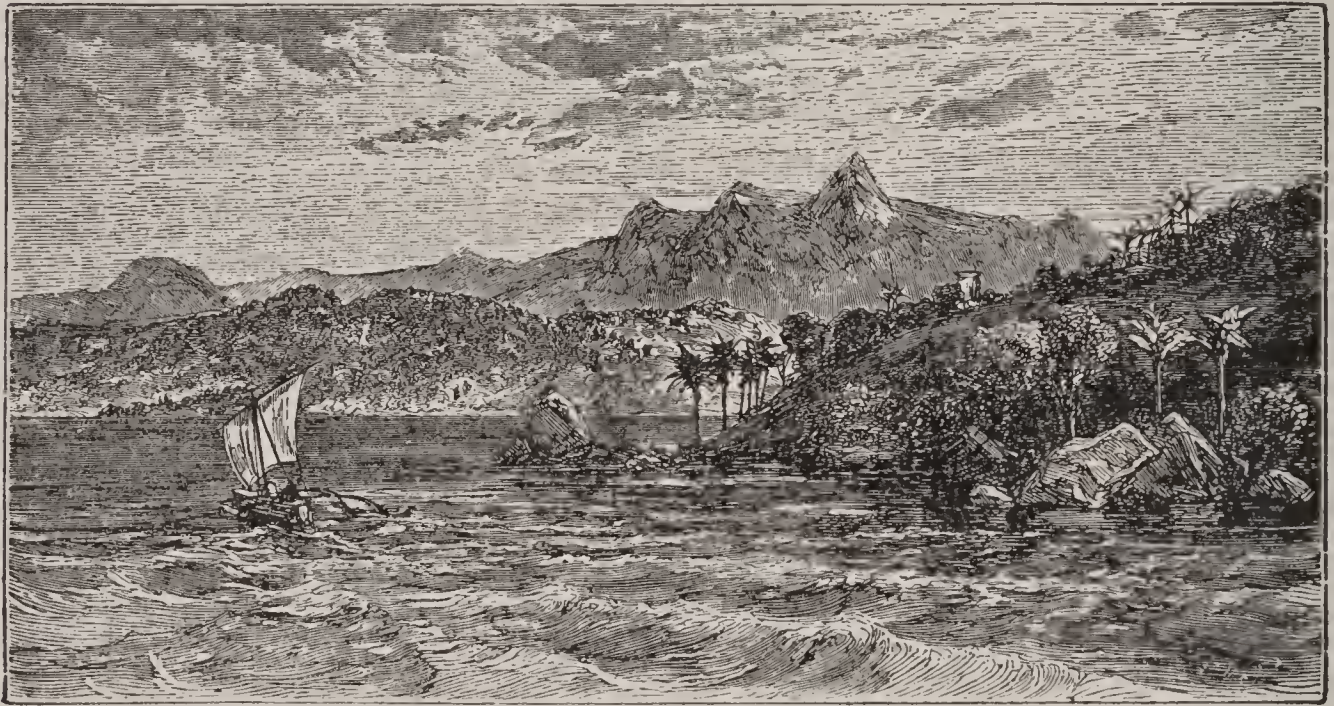


TAJ MAHAL

DIVISION II  
 ASIATIC  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 INDIA  
 BURMA

put upon the residents, who had to leave the capital and reside at Rangoon. By various acts the Burmese showed their hostility and contempt for the British. Eventually they seized British sailors, and refused redress. After a final protest by the British, war again broke out, and ended, after ten months' duration, in the acquisition of Pegu by the British. King Mindoon Min, who succeeded to the throne in 1833, made compacts with the British, treated traders well, entertained an English resident at Mandalay, abstaining from anything that might provoke hostilities.

During the crisis of the Indian mutiny in 1857 the Burmans kept quiet. In 1879 this enlightened monarch died, and was suc-



ADAM'S PEAK, CEYLON

Thebaw  
 Murders  
 Rela-  
 tives

ceeded by his son Thebaw, whose accession was signaled by the massacre of his brothers, sisters, and relatives. The British resident protested against these barbarities, and his position at Mandalay was made so perilous that he was recalled. From 1880-85 the Mandalay government showed unfriendliness in many ways; infringed the terms of the existing treaty; arranged to give a rival European power preponderating influence on the Upper Irawadi; and imposed a fine of \$1,250,000 on a British company working in Upper Burma. The Mandalay government refused requests for redress. In October, 1885, an ultimatum was despatched to Mandalay, the terms of which were refused; and early in November King Thebaw published a proclamation calling all Burmese to join him in driving the English into the sea. A short but decisive con-

flict followed, and on the 28th of November the Burmese troops had laid down their arms at Ava; the capital (Mandalay), with the palace, fort, and arsenal, was surrendered, and the king was carried off captive to India.

Early in 1886 the whole of Upper Burma was incorporated with the Queen's Indian dominions. Since then a good deal of guerrilla warfare has been waged in different parts of the country, and the people seemed unwilling to submit to British rule. But opposition is being overcome, and the country is being gradually pacified.

DIVISION II  
 ASIATIC  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 INDIA  
 BURMA

## BALUCHISTAN

BALUCHISTAN is a country in southern central Asia lying between Afghanistan on the north, the Arabian Sea on the south, Persia on the west, and British India on the east. It includes (1) Independent Baluchistan; (2) Quetta and the Bolan, administered on the Khan's behalf by the British government; (3) British Baluchistan; (4) certain Afghan and Baluch tribes on the Indian frontier.

Though this country was anciently a part of Persia, yet its modern relations connect it rather with the Indian territory since Sind and Muldan have fallen under the dominion of the English. In ancient times the Baluchi Desert formed a barrier for the Lower Indus, and constrained every assailant from Alexander downward, who preferred the less barren, though perhaps the more rugged, route through Afghanistan into the Punjab, a preference strengthened by Alexander's direful experience in returning from Indus along the coast.

Until 1810 Baluchistan was almost entirely unknown to the Europeans. The inhabitants belong to the distinct races of Brahni and Baluchis. The former are the dominant as well as the aboriginal race, and are hospitable and generous. The latter are largely nomadic, and form the bulk of the rural population. Both races are of the Mohammedan Sunni sect, but the teaching of the Koran is confused with numberless superstitious beliefs, and polygamy is said to be universal. Besides these two races there are colonies of Persian descent, called Dehwars or Villagers, who form the vassal class, and the Luri, a sort of gypsies, who are scattered in single families all over the country.

The Two  
 Races

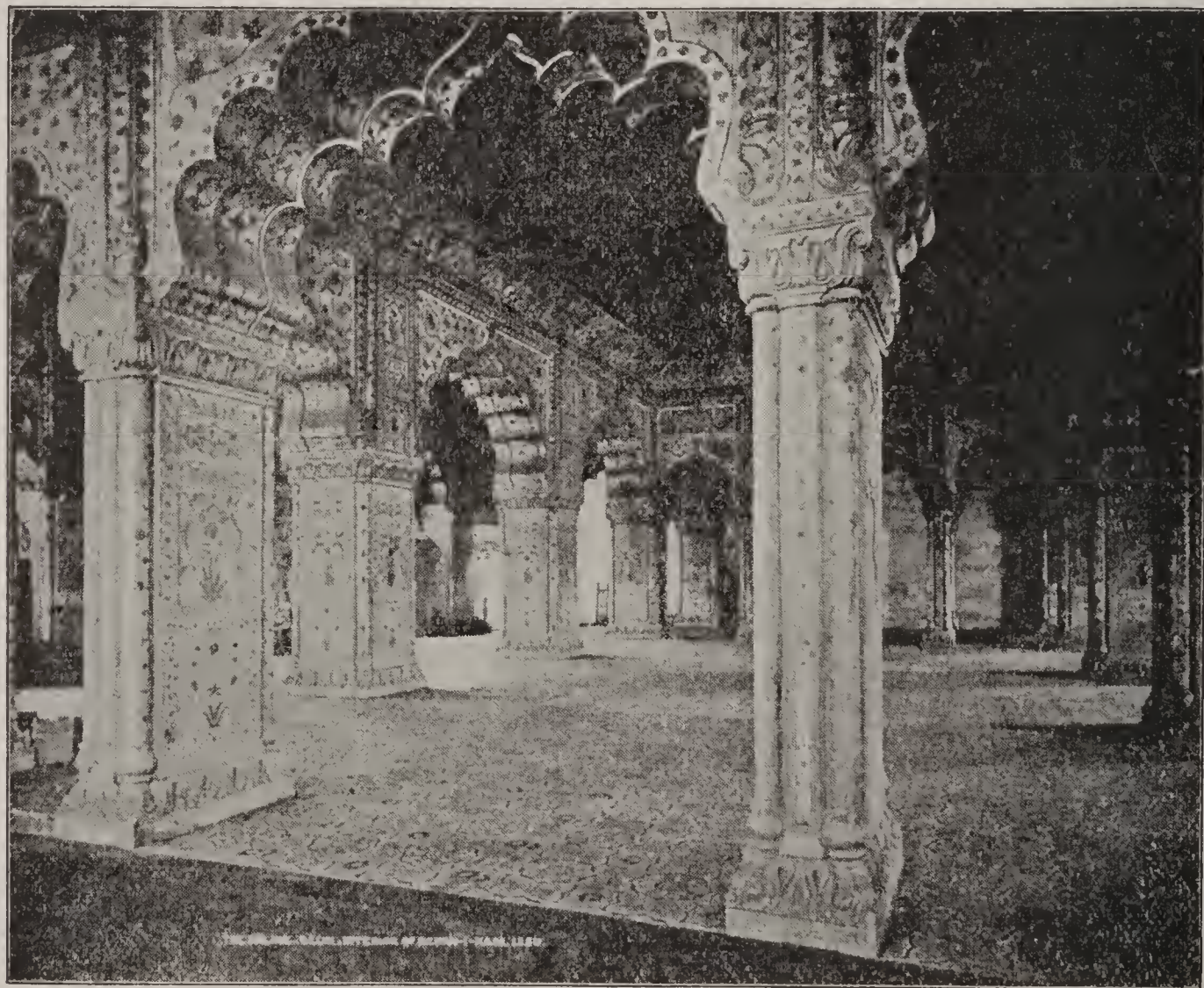
## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

INDIA

BALU-  
CHISTAN

Baluchistan is, in a somewhat indefinite manner, under the authority of the Khan of Kelat, who maintains a standing army. This petty sovereign acted treacherously toward the British during the Afghan campaign in 1839, and his royal city was taken by storm. Two years later it was again captured for temporary occupation by the British. In 1877 England obtained, by treaty with the Khan, the right of permanently occupying Quetta, which was annexed with his consent ten years later, and of having a political



INTERIOR, HALL OF PRIVATE AUDIENCE AT DELHI

agent at Kelat. Thus the Khan practically became feudatory to the Indian empire, and placed his territory at the disposal of the British government for all military and strategic purposes, gaining by its moral support a prestige that has made his authority more respected by the semi-independent chiefs of the pastoral tribes who inhabit the seven provinces into which the country is divided.

The leading chief of Independent Baluchistan is Mir Mahmud Khan, of Kelat, who succeeded on the abdication of his father, Mir Khudadad Khan, in August, 1893.

## SIKKIM

Sikkim is an Indian feudatory state in the Himalayas, bounded on the north by Tibet proper, on the east by the Tibetan district of Chumbi, on the south by the British district of Darjeeling, and on the west by Nepal. In March, 1899, a treaty was signed by the Viceroy of India and the Chinese representative, by which a British protectorate over Sikkim is recognized by China. The treaty also declared that the British government has direct and executive control over the internal administration and foreign relations of Sikkim. The Maharaja at first declined to comply with the conditions prescribed by the Indian government, and was compelled to live for some time under surveillance in British India, but was allowed to return to Sikkim in 1895.

The Rajah, who resides at the village of Tumlong, ceded Darjeeling to the British in 1835, having already acknowledged their protection in 1816. In 1888 the erection of a port under Tibetan influence led to a successful British expedition against Sikkim. The district of Darjeeling, which borders on Sikkim state, is often called British Sikkim. The principal trade route from Bengal to Tibet passes through this state, but the trade is practically extinguished, owing to the complications on the Tibetan frontier.

## NEPAL

Nepal is an independent kingdom in the Himalayas bounded on the north by Tibet, on the east by Sikkim, on the south and west by British India.

The Gurkhas, a Rajput race originally from Oodeypore in Rajputana, who had settled in the province of Gurkha in Nepal, overran the whole country during the latter half of the eighteenth century, and have maintained their supremacy ever since. About 1790 a Gurkha army invaded Tibet; and to avenge this affront the Chinese Emperor, Kuen Lung, in 1791, sent an army into Nepal, which compelled the Gurkhas to submit to the terms of peace, by which they were bound to pay tribute to China. This tribute used formerly to be sent at irregular intervals, but the last three missions have succeeded each other at intervals of five years. The relations between the Indian government and the Gurkha rulers of

DIVISION II

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CIVILIZA-  
TION

INDIA

SIKKIM

Sikkim

Nepal

DIVISION II

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TION

INDIA

NEPAL

Nepal date from the time of the Chinese invasion, when Lord Cornwallis endeavored, but without success, to avert hostilities. A commercial treaty between India and Nepal was signed in 1792, and an English resident was sent to reside at Khatmandu, but was recalled two years later. A frontier outrage, in 1814, compelled the Indian government to declare war; and a British force advanced to within three marches of the capital. Peace was concluded, and the treaty of Segowlie signed on December 2, 1815. Since then the relations of the English with Nepal have been friendly; and during the Indian Mutiny, the Prime Minister, Sir Jang Bahadur, sent a detachment of Gurkha troops to assist in the suppression of the rebellion of Oudh. Jang Bahadur died in 1877, and was succeeded as prime minister by Sir Ranodip Singh, who was overthrown and murdered in a revolution which occurred in November, 1885. Maharaja Sir Bir Shamsheer Jang Rana Bahadur, K. C. S. I., has been prime minister ever since. \*

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### BHOTAN

BHOTAN is an independent state in the eastern Himalayas, bordered on the north, east, and northwest by Tibet, and on the south by British India. Its length from east to west is 160 miles, the breadth ninety miles.

Bhotan

The original inhabitants of Bhotan, the Tephus, were subjugated about 1700 by a band of military colonists from Tibet. In 1774, the East India Company concluded a treaty with the ruler of Bhotan, but since then repeated outrages on British subjects committed by Bhotan hillmen have led from time to time to punitive measures, usually ending in temporary or permanent annexation of foreign Dwars, or tracts, with passes leading to the hills. In November, 1864, the eleven Western, or Bengal, Dwars were thus annexed. The Bhotans at first acquiesced in the annexation, but in January of the following year attacked an English outpost, and it was found necessary to send an expedition into their country. Peace was restored, and the treaty was signed in November, 1865,

Sover-  
eign's  
Unique  
Name

\* The sovereign is His Highness Maharaja Dhiraj Pirthivi Bir Bikram, Shamsheer Jang Bahadur Shah Bahadur Shamsheer Jang, who was born in 1875, and succeeded his grandfather in 1881. The government is a military oligarchy. All power is in the hands of the prime minister, to whom it was delegated by the sovereign when he came of age.

by which the rulers of Bhotan receive a subsidy of fifty thousand rupees, on condition of their good behavior. This gives the India government an effective control over them, with the occupation of two strong positions at Baxa. Diwan Giri, within a few miles of their frontier, serves as a guarantee against further aggression.

The people are nominally Buddhists, but their religious exercises consist chiefly in the propitiation of evil spirits, and the recitation of sentences from the Tibetan Scriptures. The military resources of the country are insignificant; beyond a guard for the defense of the various castles, there is nothing like a standing army.

DIVISION II  
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ASIATIC  
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INDIA  
—  
BHOTAN

### AFGHANISTAN

AFGHANISTAN is the country lying to the north of India. Its boundaries are on the north of the Oxus River, from its source in Lake Victoria to Khoja Saleh, and thence a line drawn across the Turkoman desert southwest to Murghab. This line was determined in accordance with the protocol of 1885, and the St. Petersburg treaty of 1887.

The history of Afghanistan as an independent state only dates from the middle of the eighteenth century. For two centuries before Herat and Kandahar had been in the possession of Persia, while Cabool was included in the Mogul Empire of Delhi. About 1825 Dost Mohammed, a ruler of Cabool, acquired a preponderating influence in the country. In 1839 a British army entered Afghanistan, occupied Cabool, and placed Shah Shuja, a former ruler, on the throne. The Afghans organized a wide-spread insurrection in 1841, when a number of British officers, women, and children were murdered. In January of the following year, the British left Cabool.

British  
Massacre  
in  
1841

In a few months General Pollock with a fresh army retook the city, and soon finished the war. Henceforward the policy of the governor-general of India was to be one of non-interference in the affairs of Afghanistan, and it was hoped that the Afghans would keep the peace. After forming an alliance with the Sikhs, they assisted them in their war against the British till a crushing defeat was inflicted on their combined forces at the battle of Guzrat, February 1, 1849, and thus Mohammed fled across the Indus. He concluded a treaty in 1858 with the British, and in 1863, soon

Internal  
Strife

DIVISION II  
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 ASIATIC  
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 INDIA  
 —  
 AFGHANIS-  
 TAN  
 —

after the capture of Herat, which he had besieged for ten months, he died. His son, Shere Ali, succeeded him. At first the choice was acquiesced in by the other brothers, but disagreements soon arose, which for many years kept Afghanistan in a state of anarchy, which considerably lessened the strength of the government.\* Shere Ali entered into friendly relations with the British, but in 1878, war was declared against him, and the British troops entered



THE KHYBER PASS

Afghanistan. The Amir fled to Turkestan, where he soon after died. His successor concluded a treaty with the British in the fol-

**Government**

\*The government of Afghanistan is nominally in one hereditary prince, whose power varies with his own character and fortune. The dominions are politically divided into four provinces, to which any Badakshan with its dependencies may be added. Each province is under a Hakim or governor, under whom nobles dispense justice for a feudal faction. Spoliation, exaction, and embezzlement are almost universal. Justice in ordinary cases is supposed to be administered by a chief magistrate, assisted by Mufti's, regulated by laws, which, if readily acted on, would be tolerably equitable. The present head of the government, Abdur Rahmin Khan, a grandson of Dost Mohammed, reintroduced the



lowing year, in which extension of the British frontier, the control by Great Britain of the foreign policy, and the residence of the British envoy in Cabool were the chief stipulations. In 1880 Abdur-Rahman, a grandson of Dost Mohammed, was recognized by Great Britain as Amir of the country, and has since been on friendly terms with the British, by whom he is subsidized.

For some time previous to 1878, there had been estrangement between Shere Ali and the British government. He had then made overtures to Russia, and had welcomed Russia also. This caused some jealousy on the part of Great Britain, and continued encroachments by the Russians on territory claimed by Afghanistan almost brought about a rupture between Great Britain and Russia in 1885, and has led to the delimitation of the frontier of Afghanistan on the side of the territory now occupied by Russia. Russia now touches the northwestern frontier of Afghanistan, and has developed her railway communication in this direction. Meanwhile the British have fortified and garrisoned Quetta in Baluchistan on the southern frontier of Afghanistan, and connected it with India by a railway. There has been considerable fighting on the frontier between Afghanistan and British India, and it is necessary that the British army be maintained in that quarter continually in order to preserve anything like respectable order.

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### SIAM

SIAM is a kingdom in Asia bordering on the Burmese empire, and embraces a great part of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, and part of the Malay Peninsula. Siam appears to have no place in history prior to A. D. 638, and the credible records go back only to 1350, the date of the foundation of Aynthia, the old capital. The Portuguese established intercourse with Siam in 1511, but in the seventeenth century were gradually supplanted by the Dutch. English traders were in Siam very early in the seventeenth century, but in

DIVISION II  
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 AFGHANIS-  
 TAN

French  
 and  
 English  
 Driven  
 Out of  
 Siam

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regular army, which was originally founded on the European model by Shere Ali, on his return from India in 1869. Regular troops are now stationed at Herat, Maza-I-Sharif, Kandahar, and Jelabad. In 1896 the Amir ordered a conscription of one man in every seven, but the project met with much opposition, and was never carried out. The Amir receives a subsidy from the Indian government, originally fixed at 120,000 rupees, and in 1893 increased to 180,000 rupees a year.

## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## SIAM

consequence of a massacre their factory at Aynthia was abandoned in 1638. The French were expelled about the same time, and the trade was neglected until 1856, when the English succeeded in making a treaty which opened up Siam to the Europeans. Since that date Western ideas of civilization have been introduced to some extent, and a few of the Siamese youths are now sent to Europe for their education. Ambassadors were sent from Siam in 1857 to London, and they visited Paris also in 1861.

By a treaty with France the French protectorate over Cambodia, now a part of Anam lying to the east of Siam, was recognized. In this transaction Siam lost a large strip of territory amounting to about 110,000 square miles, which was surrendered to France. For several years the relations between France and Siam had been a good deal strained on account of the desire of France for Asiatic possessions, and the comparative helplessness of Siam to protect herself. Ever since France acquired possession, Anam had been encroaching on the territory of her less powerful neighbor. The Siamese considered their boundary on the Anamese side to be the crest of a range of water-sheds on the east of the Mekong River. The French governor of Nedo China sent troops in 1893 to take possession of Stung Treng on the left bank of the river, some miles north of the Cambodia line and of the Island Khong, still higher up the stream, asserting that the French had established posts there nine years before. The garrison at Khong was invested, but fresh detachments of French troops drove the besiegers away. A French inspector with some soldiers followed them across the river, and was shot by the Mandarin, and his escort was killed.

**French  
Make an  
Unpro-  
voked  
Attack**

Notwithstanding the explanation of Siam that the French began an attack on the Siamese, and were killed in open fight, gun-boats were sent to Bangkok, and in July an ultimatum was sent to the king of Siam, regarding indemnity for the killing of the inspector and his men, and abandonment of the territory east of the Mekong. Upon being granted all that they asked, the French found pretext for increasing their demands. They forced the Siamese to surrender all pretensions to the territory east of the Mekong, and secured several other valuable concessions, and thus stripped the little kingdom of a third of its territory.

The present dynasty was founded in 1782, and the King Chula Longkorn, born in 1853, succeeded his father in 1868.

Many modern improvements are being made in the way of railways, telegraph service, and also in the matter of legislation.\* In 1895 the council of state was superseded by a decree creating a legislative council consisting of forty-three members. By an agreement between France and Great Britain, entered into January, 1896, the integrity of Siam is guaranteed, and there is now no probability of a further loss of territory to the kingdom. In the summer of 1897 the king and queen made an extended trip through Europe, and were received at all the prominent European courts.

In December, 1898, tension was again reported between France and Siam. A French church in Bangkok was pillaged by the Siamese police and soldiers in September, 1898, and matters assumed a more threatening phase still by the refusal of the Siamese to evacuate, at the demand of the French agent, the neutral territory established by the treaty. With France on one side and England on the other, the small kingdom has no chance to grow, and but for the antagonism of these two powers between themselves would have small chance for existence at all, but since they have assured the integrity of the nation, the Siamese may feel comparatively safe in making the modern improvements.

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### CAMBODIA

CAMBODIA is a state in Indo-China under a French protectorate, but practically a French dependency, on the lower course of the Mekhong. It is bounded on the southeast and south by French Cochin-China; on the southwest by the Gulf of Siam; on the north by Siam; on the east toward Anam, where the frontier traversing imperfectly explored territories is vague, by the territories of independent Mois tribes.

By treaty with France in 1884 Cambodia is divided into eight provinces or residences. The whole of the French possessions in Indo-China are now, by decree of 1787, united under the name of Indo-China, with a governor-general at its head, Cambodia having placed over it a resident-general under the governor-general.

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\* The legislative power is exercised by the king in conjunction with a council of ministers. The royal revenue is raised by land taxes, and by taxes on fruit-trees, spirits, opium, gambling, customs, tin mines, edible bird's nests, and fisheries. There is a small standing army, and a general armament of the people in the form of militia. There are forty-one provinces, each administered by a governor.

DIVISION II  
 ASIATIC  
 CIVILIZA-  
 TION  
 SIAM

Eight  
 Provinces

Govern-  
 ment

## DIVISION II

ASIATIC  
CIVILIZA-  
TION

## CAMBODIA

The ancient kingdom of Cambodia, or Khmer, formerly extended over a large part of Indo-China. Buddhism was introduced in the fourth century. The Portuguese in the sixteenth century were the first Europeans to explore the valley of Tonle-Tom, and to this day descendants of the Portuguese are to be found in Cambodia. Close on the Portuguese followed Spaniards from Manila, and about 1650 the Dutch set up their factories at the mouth of the Mekhong. The Khmer kingdom became dismembered in the seventeenth century, when Anam took successively Baria, Bien-Hoa, Saigon, Mytho, and Vinh-Long, and in 1715 Chandoc and Hatien. A century later (1812) Siam wrested the provinces west of the Great Lake: Battambang, Angkor, Tonle-Repon, and Melu-Prey. In 1858 France first appeared in Indo-China. Having made herself mistress of the Anam provinces of the delta of the Mekhong, France on August 11, 1863, concluded a treaty with the new king of Cambodia, Norodom, placing Cambodia under a French protectorate. This treaty has been superseded by that of June 17, 1884, under which the king of Cambodia accepts all the reforms, administrative, judiciary, financial, and commercial, which the government of France may deem advisable.



*A GENERAL VIEW OF EUROPE.*

EUROPE is historically and politically the most important of the five great divisions of the world. It is, however, next to Australasia the smallest in area, though in proportion to its size the most densely peopled.

The political history of Europe begins with the Greeks, but while they contributed more extensively than any people have done since to the theory of government, they have left practically no trace of their political organization in the present association of states. From first to last, in spite of religious and political confederations and of the unifying influence of the Macedonian hegemony, they retained their individuality — each city or state working out its own political development and testing the value of various forms of political life for itself. The Greeks were not a conquering people; they felt nothing of the land-hunger of modern nations; and even the great conquests to which they were led by the genius of Alexander the Great did not present themselves as acquisitions of territory. They were great founders of state, and their colonies were distributed along the coasts of Europe from Spain in the west to the Black Sea in the east; but if all the territories that they themselves occupied were added together it would form a comparatively small country.

The city, wherever it was, continued as an integral part of Hellas, but Hellas was rather the name of the people and civilization than of a country or a state.

In this respect no greater contrast could be found than that offered by the next people of European history. The history of Rome is almost from its beginning to its close a record of conquest; the limits of its territorial advance were no sooner fixed than the period of decadence set in. Where the Greeks had planted a city the Romans subjugated the region, and thus it is

**Begin-  
ning of  
Political  
History**

**Greeks**

**Roman  
Policy of  
Coloni-  
zation**

DIVISION III  
 EUROPE  
 ANCIENT  
 AND  
 MODERN

that to the present day the lines of Roman organization are as distinctly traceable on the political map as the lines of Roman roadway in local topographies.

As the Greeks had been the great defenders of Europe from the encroachments of Persian ambition, so the Romans repulsed the Semitic powers of the Carthaginians; and as the defense against the Persians was the great determining factor in later Greek development, so the repulse of the Carthaginians was the prime factor in the later Roman development. The Punic wars led to the conquest of Sicily and Spain; and the conquest of these gave at least a new emphasis to what was already perhaps a national tendency. The second Punic war left Rome master in 201 B. C. of the greater part of Spain and supreme in the western Mediterranean. The capture of Numantia in 133 put the rest of Spain in its power; the battle of Pydna secured the subjugation of Greece; the campaigns of Julius Cæsar added the vast territory of Gaul and Britain to its domain; and when Augustus effected the great change in the constitution, he was able to adopt the Danube, the Rhine, and the ocean as the northeastern boundary of the European part of his empire. His rule was paramount in all the regions which now comprise Portugal, Spain, France, Belgium, western Holland, Rhenish Prussia, parts of Baden and Wurtemberg, most of Bavaria, Switzerland, Italy, Tyrol, Austria proper, western Hungary, Servia, Turkey in Europe, and Greece. The populations of many of these countries had already begun to be Romanized in language and customs, but most of them were still distinctly aliens.

Chris-  
 tianity  
 Becomes  
 a Factor  
 in  
 Political  
 Union

During the succeeding centuries of the empire, a few comparatively unimportant changes of frontier took place, and a few additional limits were added to the motley state of Roman citizenship; but the main features were still the same when Constantine introduced his new administrative distribution, and fixed the seat of government in the city which still bears his name. Christianity, which now received the sanction of the civil power, had greatly changed from an organ of political disintegration into an organ of political union. The worship of Christ and the service of the empire formed two powerful bonds of association between the members of discordant races, and even proved strong enough to break up several tribes into two sections — one of which was Christian and imperial, and the other pagan and barbarian. But

even in the reign of Constantine, the frontiers were with difficulty maintained; he had himself to resume the contest more than once with several powerful Germanic peoples. Before long, the whole of the outer world to the northeast was in motion. The Visigoths, or West Goths, were pressing on the lower Danube; behind them, in the countries of the Bug and Dnieper, lay the East Goths; and farther east were the warlike and horse-loving Alans in the country of the Don and the Volga. Other German tribes or confederations, Franks, Saxons, Alemanni, Longobards, had settled, or were settling, along the upper Danube and the Rhine, and had crossed, or were crossing, into Roman territory. Far to the east, over the country now known as Russia, the Scythians and Sarmatians were nomadizing; and in the outskirts, along the Ural, we can dimly distinguish the Magyars, the Avars, the Petchenegs, and other tribes that were afterward to force their way westward. In the reign of Valens, a new impetus was given to the barbarian hordes. The Huns, a wild, nomadic people, suddenly appeared on the Lower Don, subjugated the Alans and the East Goths, and drove the defeated West Goths across the Roman frontier. As a Christian people, the fugitives obtained permission to settle on the south of the Danube; but the treatment they received from the Roman officials drove them to rebellion; they defeated Valens in the great battle of Adrianople, and threatened to invade Italy itself; and it was not till the reign of Theodosius that they were finally persuaded by important concessions to take peaceful possession of territory in Mœsia, Dacia, and Thracia.

Hitherto the empire had, in spite of all the confusion of rival emperors and intrusive tribes, maintained a theoretical unity; in 395 A. D. a division was effected which practically proved definitive. Arcadius, the eldest son of Theodosius, became emperor of the East, with his capital at Constantinople; and Honorius, his brother, became emperor of the West, with his capital not at Rome but at Ravenna. Had the Roman territory been confined to Europe, the division would have been extremely unequal, as Arcadius only received the country to the south of the Danube and east of Drinus, or, in other words, little more than European Turkey and Greece; like the Sultan's, his possessions were mainly in Asia and Africa.

DIVISION III  
 EUROPE  
 ANCIENT  
 AND  
 MODERN

Bar-  
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Italy  
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Eastern  
 and  
 Western  
 Empires

DIVISION III  
 EUROPE  
 ANCIENT  
 AND  
 MODERN

The history of Modern Europe commences with the fall of the Roman empire in the West in 476 A. D., and continues to the present time. It falls conveniently into nine periods, as follows :—

A. D. A. D.

Modern  
 Europe

- |   |         |      |
|---|---------|------|
| 1. The fall of the Western empire.....                                    | 476 to  | 800  |
| 2. The re-establishment of that empire by Charlemagne.....                | 800 to  | 962  |
| 3. The translation of the empire to Germany, by Otho the Great.....       | 962 to  | 1074 |
| 4. The accession of Henry IV to the imperial crown, and the Crusades..... | 1074 to | 1273 |
| 5. The elevation of Rudolph of Hapsburg to the imperial throne.           | 1273 to | 1453 |
| 6. The fall of the empire of the East.....                                | 1453 to | 1648 |
| 7. The peace of Westphalia..  | 1648 to | 1713 |
| 8. The peace of Utrecht.....  | 1713 to | 1789 |
| 9. The French Revolution to the present time.....                         | 1789    |      |

First  
 Period  
 476-800

In the fifth century many of the modern monarchies of Europe had their commencement. The empire of the West was brought to the very verge of ruin by the innumerable hosts of barbarians from the north, which poured in upon it, and, at length, subdued it in the year 476. The Vandals, the Suevi, and the Alans were the first adventurers. These were soon followed by the Visigoths, the Burgundians, the Germans, the Franks, the Lombards, the Angles, the Saxons, and the Huns. These depredators taking different routes, armed with fire and sword, soon subjected to their yoke the terrified victims of their ferocity, and erected their conquests into kingdoms.

Western  
 Empire  
 Falls in  
 476

The Visigoths, after having driven out the Vandals, destroyed the Alans, subdued the Suevi, and founded a new kingdom in Spain.

The Angles and the Saxons made a conquest of Britain from the Romans and natives, and formed the Heptarchy,\* or seven kingdoms.

The Huns established themselves in Pannonia, and the Germans on the banks of the Danube. The Heruli, after having destroyed the Western empire, founded a state in Italy, which continued but

The  
 Hep-  
 tarchy

\* The Heptarchy is the name applied to the seven kingdoms supposed to have been established in England. The term is misleading if it be taken to mean that there were neither more nor less than seven distinct kingdoms in the country down to the time of Egbert; but it is permissible enough if taken to mean only that the chief kingdoms at various periods from the fifth to the ninth century were Wessex, Sussex Kent, Essex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria.





**EUROPE.**

SCALE OF MILES.  
 100 50 0 100 200 300 400  
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a short time, being driven out by the Ostrogoths. Justinian retook Italy from the Ostrogoths. The greater part of Italy soon after fell under the power of the Lombards, who formed it into a kingdom. The exarchate of Ravenna, raised by them to the empire of the East, enjoyed it but a short time. The exarchate being conquered by Charlemagne, was settled by him on the pope, which may be properly styled the epoch of the temporal grandeur of the Roman pontiffs, and of the real commencement of the combination of church and state.

DIVISION III  
 EUROPE  
 ANCIENT  
 AND  
 MODERN  
 Church  
 and  
 State

Numerous bodies of people, from various countries, having taken possession of Gaul, founded therein several kingdoms, which were, at length, united by the Franks under the name of France. Pharamond was its first monarch; and under Clovis it arrived at considerable eminence. Pepin le Bref (the Short) expelled, in the person of Childeric III, the race of Pharamond (called the Merovingian) from the throne, and assumed the government. His son, Charlemagne, the greatest prince of his time, retrieved the honor of France, destroyed the Lombardian monarchy, and renewed the empire of the West, being himself crowned emperor at Rome.

France

About the middle of this period, Mohammed, styling himself a prophet, by successful imposture and the force of arms, laid the foundation of a considerable empire, the East, out of the ruins of which are formed the greater part of the present existing monarchies in western Asia.

Under Charlemagne, France was the most powerful kingdom of Europe; and the title of Roman emperor was renewed by one of the descendants of the destroyers of that empire; the other monarchies, hardly formed, were eclipsed by the luster of this new kingdom.

Second  
 Period  
 800-962

Spain was subdued by the Saracens, who formed a new kingdom in the mountains of Asturias. The Moors and Christians arming against each other, laid waste this beautiful country.

The seven Saxon kingdoms, which formed the Heptarchy, were united by Egbert, who became the first king of England; but the incursions of the Danes prevented that power from making any considerable figure among the states of Europe. The North was yet plunged in barbarism, without laws, knowing even but very little of the arts of the first necessity.

Egbert,  
 First  
 King of  
 England

The French monarchy, which had risen to such a high pitch of

**DIVISION III**  
**EUROPE**  
**ANCIENT AND MODERN**

**France Loses Power**

grandeur under Charlemagne, became weak under his successors. The empire was transferred to the kings of Italy; which event was followed by civil and foreign wars in France, in Germany, in Italy, while the Hungarians, from Tartary, augmented the troubles. Otho the Great subdued Italy, which he united to Germany with the dignity of emperor, and showed to a barbarous age the talents of a hero and the wisdom of a great legislator.

**Third Period**  
**962-1074**

The German empire during this period reached the summit of its grandeur under Otho the Great. Conrad II joined the kingdom of Burgundy to his possessions; and his son, Henry III, added a part of Hungary. This empire arrived at a high degree of power, but was soon after brought into a state of decay by the influence of its nobles, and by the feudal government.

Spain, although desolated by the continual wars between the Visigoths and the Saracens, was again divided by the differences of worship of those two rival nations. In France the Carolingian kings were deposed by the usurpation of Hugh Capet, chief of the third or Capetian race of kings.

**King Canute**

The Danes ravaged England, and now became masters of it under Canute the Great, who conciliated the love of his new subjects. Edward the Confessor succeeded the Danish princes. He was succeeded by Harold II, a virtuous prince slain in battle by William, duke of Normandy, who made a conquest of England. At the same time the Normans established themselves in Sicily, and laid the foundation of a new kingdom.

**Venice a Growing Power**

Italy, oppressed by little tyrants, or devoted to anarchy, offered nothing of interest, if we except Venice, which was every day extending its commerce. The other states of Europe did not furnish any important event, being at this period plunged in obscurity and barbarity.

**Fourth Period**  
**1074-1273**

**Conflict Between Popes and Emperors**

The quarrels between the emperors and the popes diminished the grandeur and power of the empire. The discords which began under the emperor, Henry IV, agitated Germany and Italy during several centuries; the factions of the Guelphs and the Ghibelines (the one partizans of the popes, and the other of the emperors) were alternately destroying each other. Frederick I and Frederick II endeavored to uphold the majesty of the empire; but the house of Hohenstauffen at length yielded; they were despoiled of their possessions, and driven from the throne. The empire was much

weakened by the incapacity of its chiefs, the disunion of its members, and the authority of the popes, ever aiming at their further aggrandizement.

The crusades commenced at the end of the eleventh century, and lasted till the latter half of the thirteenth. These great movements were carried on by the Christian nations of western Europe for the conquest of Palestine. The antagonism between the Christian and Mohammedan nations had been intensified by the possession of the Holy Land by the Turks and by their treatment of pilgrims to Jerusalem; and the first strenuous appeal was assured of response alike from the pious, the adventurous, and the greedy.

The immediate cause of the first crusade was the preaching of Peter of Amiens, or Peter the Hermit, who, in 1093 had joined other pilgrims on a journey to Jerusalem. On his return he gave Pope Urban II a description of the unhappy situation of Christians in the East, and presented a petition for assistance from the Patriarch of Jerusalem. The statements of the pope at the councils of Piacenza and Clermont in 1095 produced a profound sensation throughout Europe, and in 1096 several armies set out in different divisions, most of which, being ignorant of military discipline and unprovided with necessaries, were destroyed before reaching Constantinople, which had been chosen for their place of meeting. A well-conducted regular army, however, of 80,000 men was headed by Godfrey of Bouillon; Hugh of Vermandois, brother to Philip, king of France; Baldwin, brother of Godfrey; Robert II of Flanders; Robert II of Normandy, brother of William II, king of England; Raymond of Toulouse; and other heroes. They traversed Germany, Hungary, and the Byzantine empire, passed over into Asia Minor, conquered Nicæa in June, 1097, and shortly after, on July 4, fought the first pitched battle at Dorylæum, being completely victorious after a severe contest. They then marched through Asia Minor upon Antioch, which, with the exception of the citadel, fell into their hands by treachery in June, 1098. Surrounded in turn by a Turkish army, they were soon reduced to pitiable straits, but succeeded in routing their besiegers on June 28. After remaining nearly a year in the neighborhood of Antioch, they commenced, in May, 1099, their march against Jerusalem, the siege of which they commenced in June. Their numbers were now reduced to little more than 20,000 men; but after a fierce struggle,

DIVISION III

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ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERN**The  
Crusades****Peter the  
Hermit****First  
Crusade****Battle  
at Dory-  
læum**

## DIVISION III

## EUROPE

ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERNSecond  
Crusade

the town was taken by storm on July 15, and Godfrey of Bouillon was chosen king of Jerusalem, or, as he preferred to term himself, Protector of the Holy Sepulcher.

The second great and regularly conducted crusade was occasioned by the loss of Edessa, which the Saracens conquered in December, 1144. Fearing still graver losses, Pope Eugenius III, seconded by Bernard of Clairvaux, exhorted the German emperor, Conrad III, and the king of France, Louis VII, to defend the cross. Both these monarchs obeyed, and in 1147 led large forces to the East, but returned in 1149, without having accomplished anything.

Third  
Crusade

The third crusade was undertaken after the capture of Jerusalem by Saladin in 1187, the monarchs Frederick I (Barbarossa) of Germany, Philip Augustus of France, and Richard I (Cœur de Lion) of England, leading their armies in person. Richard and Philip Augustus met at Vezelai in June, 1190, and agreed to unite their forces at Messina in Sicily, where they spent six months at the end of 1190 and beginning of 1191. Philip joined the other crusaders before Acre on April 13, 1191; but Richard, whose fleet was separated by a storm, went to Cyprus, and, dispossessing Isaac Comnenus, made himself king. Jealousies arose between the monarchs, and within a few weeks after the fall of Acre the French king returned to Europe. Richard, now sole leader of the expedition, defeated Saladin, and occupied Jaffa or Joppa; but having twice vainly set out with the design of besieging Jerusalem, he concluded (September 2, 1192) a truce of three years and three months with Saladin, who agreed that pilgrims should be free to visit the Holy Sepulcher, and that the whole coast from Tyre to Jaffa (including the fortress of Acre) should belong to the crusaders.

Saladin  
DefeatedFourth  
Crusade

The fourth crusade was set on foot by Pope Innocent III, who commissioned Fulk of Neuilly to preach it in 1198. Among its chief promoters were Godfrey of Villehardouin, seneschal of Champagne; Baldwin, count of Flanders and Hainaut; Dandolo, the aged doge of Venice; and the Marquis of Montferrat, who was chosen leader. The crusaders assembled at Venice in the spring of 1202, but were diverted from their original purpose first by the capture of the Dalmatian town of Zara, and then by the expedition which ended in the sack of Constantinople and the establishment of a Latin empire there (1204).

Capture  
of Con-  
stanti-  
nople

The fifth crusade, undertaken by Andreas of Hungary, in 1217, and shared in by John of Brienne, to whom the title of "King of Jerusalem" was given, had little other result than the temporary occupation of the Nile delta.

The sixth crusade, that of Frederick II, emperor of Germany, was undertaken at the instance of popes Honourius III and Gregory IX. On arriving he entered into negotiations with the Sultan of Egypt, and without any fighting recovered for himself, as heir of John of Brienne, the kingdom of Judea, on the condition of tolerating in his kingdom the Mohammedan worship. He then concluded a useless truce of ten years, got himself crowned at Jerusalem, and returned in 1229.

The seventh and eighth crusades were led by St. Louis of France (Louis IX) in person. He took Damietta in June, 1249, and marched up the Nile, but was compelled to retreat, and finally to surrender with his whole army. The second expedition of Louis was still more disastrous in its results than the first. He landed his army in 1270 on the northern coast of Africa; but he himself and a large number of his knights died before Tunis, and the majority of the French crusaders returned home. A crusading army under Prince Edward of England (afterward Edward I), originally intended to co-operate with that of Louis, landed at Acre in 1271, but little was effected beyond a new truce for ten years (1272). For nineteen years longer the Christians in Palestine held with great difficulty the remnants of the Latin kingdom there. But Tyre and Berytus (Beyrout) were successively snatched from them, and finally the capture of Acre by the Sultan of Egypt in 1291 put an end to the kingdom founded by the crusaders.

While we can not help deploring the enormous expenditure of human life which the crusades occasioned, it is impossible to overlook the fact that they indirectly exercised a most beneficial influence on modern society. They secured for humanity certain advantages which could not have been otherwise obtained. Guizot, in his *Lectures on European Civilization*, endeavored to show their design and functions in the destinies of Christendom. "To the first chroniclers," he says, "and consequently to the first crusaders, of whom they are but the expression, Mohammedans are objects only of hatred; it is evident that those who speak of them do not know them. The historians of the later crusades speak

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CrusadeFred-  
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and  
Eighth  
CrusadesResults  
of the  
Crusades

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quite differently: it is clear that they look upon them no longer as monsters; that they have to a certain extent entered into their ideas; that they have lived with them; and that relations, and even a sort of sympathy, have been established between them." Thus the minds of both, but particularly of the crusaders, were partly delivered from those prejudices which are the offspring of ignorance. "A step was taken toward the enfranchisement of the human mind."

Secondly. The crusaders were brought into contact with two civilizations, richer and more advanced than their own, — the Greek and the Saracenic, — and it is beyond all question that they were mightily struck with the wealth and refinement of the East.

Thirdly. The close relationship between the chief laymen of the West and the church, occasioned by the crusades, enabled the former "to inspect more narrowly the policy and motives of the papal court." The result was very disastrous to that spirit of veneration and belief on which the church lived, and in many cases an extraordinary freedom of judgment and hardihood of opinion were induced, such as Europe had never before dreamed of.

Imme-  
 diate  
 Results

The immediate results of the crusades, however, went altogether to strengthen the power of the church. Through their means the popes found an easy method of ridding themselves of refractory monarchs; and by the exorbitant taxes levied in the name of the cross they practically rendered all the kingdoms of the West their tributaries.

Fourthly. Great social changes were brought about. A commerce between the East and West sprang up, and towns — the early homes of liberty in Europe — began to grow great and powerful. The crusades, indeed, "gave maritime commerce the strongest impulse it had ever received."

The Byzantine empire which had fallen before the crusades was retaken by Michael Peleologus, emperor of Nice.

Spain continued to be the theater of wars between the Christian kings and the Moors. The kings of Castile, Aragon, and Navarre signalized themselves by their conquests over the Saracens.

In France, the number of great vassals was somewhat diminished; but the continental wars with the English exhausted it both of men and money.



The power of England increased considerably; the navy became puissant; and, in consequence of the civil wars between the king and the people, the royal authority became more weakened, and a preponderance was given to democratical institutions.

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The provinces of Naples and Sicily were erected into a kingdom. Roger, prince of Normandy, was the first king; and his family possessed the crown till 1194. It then passed into the house of Hohenstauffen, which house was dispossessed by that of Anjou.

Denmark increased in power under Walidemar II, but the influence of Sweden seemed to be of little weight in the European system.

Russia groaned under the yoke of the Tartars, who also made incursions into Poland. Bohemia and the island of Sardinia were erected into kingdoms. Genoa and Venice were increasing in power; by the strength of their navies, they supported an extensive commerce. Venice became possessed of Dalmatia, and a part of the islands in the Archipelago.

The states of Europe enjoyed an equality or equilibrium during the fifth period. The Renaissance\* was at hand. Rome alone

**Fifth  
Period  
1273-1453**

\* Renaissance is a comprehensive name for the great intellectual movement which marks the transition from the Middle Ages to the modern world. This movement included a very marked change in attitude of mind and ideal of life, as well as in philosophy, art, literary criticism, political and religious thought. Substantially a revolt against barrenness and dogmatism of medievalism, the new spirit claimed the entire liberation of reason, and, passionately recognizing and studying the rich humanity of Greece and Rome, aimed at a complete rehabilitation of the human spirit with all the free activities and arts and graces which invested the classical age. It was an escape — at first hesitating, then triumphant — from a life regulated and confined on all sides by ecclesiastical tradition and intellectual tyranny into joyous freedom and unfettered spontaneity. Zeal for the *Litteræ Humaniores* brought forth a new ideal of culture, and the new view of life for which the name of *humanism* is used. Renaissance, re-birth, was originally used as synonymous with the revival of letters, the revived study in a new spirit of the classical languages and classical literatures of Greece and Rome in all their depth and breadth, interpreted in their own spirit, and divested of the narrow traditional limitations. Greek in special was practically a new discovery, and a vastly important one; but the knowledge of the classics was only one side of the movement which permeated and transformed philosophy, science, art, and religion. The new spirit powerfully aided in weakening the power of the papacy, in the establishment of Protestantism and the right of free inquiry. Under its impulse astronomy was eventually reformed by Copernicus and Galileo, and science started on its modern unfettered career; by it, too, feudalism was abolished, and the demand for political liberty began to be raised. Reverence for the Holy Roman Empire and for its ancient rival, the papacy, was alike decaying; a new sense of nationality was springing up, and national languages began to flourish. To the same general impulse, as causes or effects, belonged also the invention

**Renaissance**

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seemed to possess superior power at first, but this power very soon diminished considerably; it labored without effect to drive the Ghibelines out of Italy, and to reunite the Greeks to the church.

of printing and multiplication of books, new methods of paper-making, the use of the mariners' compass, the discovery of America, and the exploration of the Indian Sea. The fall of the Eastern empire in 1453 sent swarms of Greek scholars to promote the revival of scholarship already in progress in western Europe. From the nature of the case, it is impossible to fix a definite date for the beginning of the Renaissance; long before the close of the Dark Ages there were isolated scholars and thinkers who anticipated the new light. In its main elements, however, the movement originated in Italy toward the end of the fourteenth century, and, attaining its full development there in the earlier half of the sixteenth, the Renaissance communicated itself throughout the whole of the rest of Europe; France, Germany, England, and other countries participating later in the movement, which in each of them took a somewhat different shape. But Italy was especially the nursing-mother of the Renaissance.

Dante

For the first herald of the Renaissance we may go as far back as Dante (1265-1321), who, with all his Medievalism of conception, yet by the pristine energy and fulness of his poetry was no unworthy follower of his chosen master, Virgil. The first positive impulse, however, in that direction was imparted by Petrarch (1304-74). Besides suggesting in his Italian *Rime* the old Roman grace, he awoke enthusiasm for the classics by his Latin epic *Africa* and numerous epistles and dissertations. In his old age he tried to imbibe a little Greek at the extremely sorry sources within his reach, and on receiving Homer from Constantinople urged Boccaccio to translate the supreme poet into Latin. Boccaccio did not rest till he had piously, though very imperfectly, rendered into Latin both the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*.

The second period in the history of the Renaissance is distinguished by indiscriminate avidity for everything classic. As its most representative scholar may be cited Francesco Filelpho (1398-1481). Having studied rhetoric and Latin at Padua, he learned Greek at Constantinople, became professor at Venice, Bologna, and Florence, and gained the admiration of all Italy for erudition. In the third period of the Renaissance the leading figures are Lorenzo de' Medici and Politian at Florence, Boiardo at Ferrara, and Sannazaro at Naples. Toward the end of the fifteenth century mere erudition began to sink in credit, and the accomplished personages who adorn the fourth period are of a somewhat more independent type — the historians, Guicciardini and Machiavelli, the handsome Bembo, the splendid Alberti, Castiglione, the author of *Il Cortegiano*, and Ariosto, author of *Orlando Furioso*, the *Cinque Canti*, and the polished cynical *Satires*.

Faults of  
 Renais-  
 sance

Some of the faults of the Renaissance clung to it in all its periods. At one time pedantry threatened to check originality and spontaneity; the worst ancient works were prized more than the best written in any new European tongue. Petrarch valued himself mainly for his Latin works, and thought lightly of his Italian poems. The tendency was established to regard the classics as the one standard of learning and the one instrument of education. A worse fault was that the revolt against medieval religious tradition was accompanied to a very large extent by absolute and anti-Christian immorality and license. Literary and artistic refinement placed no check on brutal lusts and savage passions; though in a few men of high character, Michael Angelo, Raphael, Pico della Mirandola, Ficino, and others, in whom humanism did not extinguish the principles of Christianity and morals, a singularly noble and complete humanity was displayed. The culmination of the Renaissance in Italy may be regarded

The empire of Germany, confined to its own limits, underwent some changes. Its chaotic government was rendered somewhat more clear; and emperors of different houses successively occupied the throne. At the death of Sigismund, Albert II, of the house of Hapsburg, or Austria, was elected; from which time to the present day, this family, with little exception, have possessed the imperial crown.

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France was considerably agitated by intestine feuds, but became more powerful by the expulsion of the English. Legislation and police were beginning to be understood, which served to soften the manners of the people, and promote the tranquillity of the nation.

Edward III rendered England the terror of its neighbors: he held at the same time three kings prisoners; and France was reduced, by his prowess, to the condition of a humble supplicant. The factions of the red and white roses (the first as the supporters of the title of the house of Lancaster, and the latter that of York) were deluging their native land with the blood of each other at the close of this period.

Spain continued to enrich itself with the spoils of the Saracens, who, notwithstanding the efforts of the Spaniards, were yet masters of all the southern parts. In Portugal, the legitimate descendants of Henry became extinct, and an illegitimate prince of the

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as having fallen within the half century 1456–1500; and its close for the land of its birth may be fixed at the sack of Rome in 1527 by the Constable de Bourbon, followed by the transference of humanism in its later developments to France, England, and the rest of Europe.

In Germany the change was as marked as in Italy, but the humanism of Germany and the Low Countries was very different in spirit from that of Italy. Not less tinged by a revived love for ancient learning, it was never divorced from morality nor hostile to Christianity; and its most important direct outcome was the Reformation. Biblical and Oriental studies were strenuously cultivated. Among the noted leaders were Erasmus, Melanchthon, Reuchlin, and Von Hutten. In the Netherlands and Flanders the new school of painting was a notable development. In France the movement had rich results in art and letters. Villon, Marot, Ronsard, but above all Rabelais, are types of the French Renaissance in pure literature; while within the sphere of scholarship and religious reform we have here the names of the Scaligers, Dolet, Muretus, Cujacius, Salmasius, Casaubon, Beza, Calvin.

In Other  
Countries

In England Wyclif and Chaucer may be regarded as the forerunners of the Reformation and the Renaissance; but the main streams of both these movements reached England contemporaneously. In scholarship the great names are Grocyn, Linacre, Colet, Ascham, and More; but the fullest English outcome of the Renaissance was the glorious Elizabethan literature, with Spenser and Shakespeare, and in philosophy Bacon, as its most noted representatives.

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 EUROPE  
 ANCIENT  
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 MODERN

same house ascended the throne. Sicily was taken by Peter of Aragon, of the house of Anjou, who also held the kingdom of Naples. Margaret, queen of Denmark, the Semiramis of the North, united in her person the three crowns of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. This union made at Calmar continued but a short time. The Swedes broke the treaty, and chose for themselves a king.

Russia (hitherto under the yoke of the Tartars) was delivered from slavery and obscurity. In Poland the royal dignity began to have permanency. In Hungary the house of Anjou mounted the throne, the crown of which, as well as that of Bohemia, soon after passed to the house of Austria.

Rise  
 of the  
 Turks

Othman, sultan of the Turks, erected a monarchy, which arrived to great power under Mohammed II. This prince took Constantinople, and put an end to the empire of the East. The consequence, resulting from the capture of this fine city, was a reflux of letters from the East to the West, which contributed to the establishment of the arts. Printing, engraving of prints, paper-making, painting in oil, gunpowder, and the mariners' compass were the principal among many other useful inventions.

Fall of  
 Constantinople

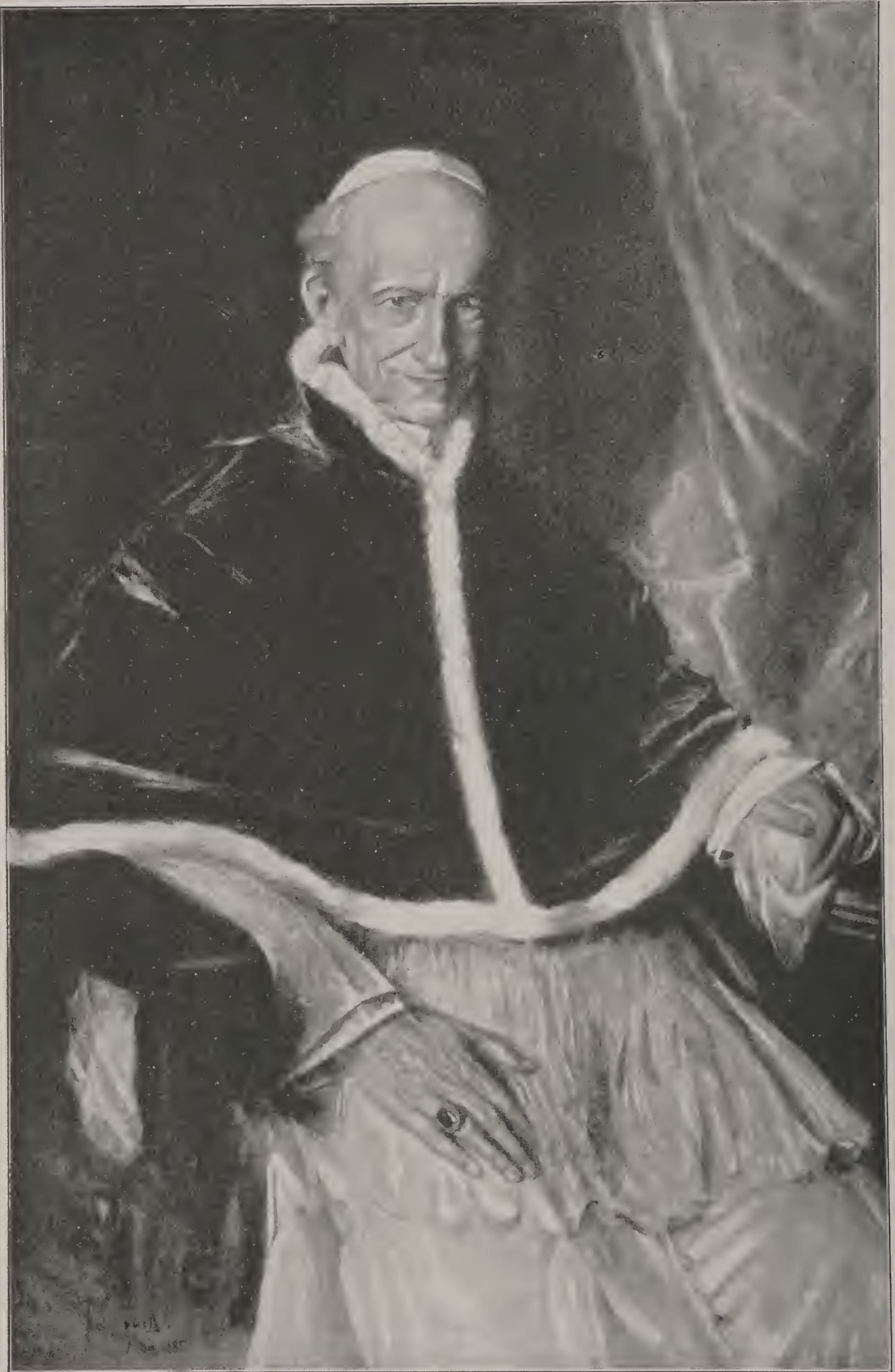
Sixth  
 Period  
 1453-1648

The history of Europe during the sixth period is intensely interesting. The discovery of the East Indies and America and the great changes brought about in religious opinions — the Reformation\* — by the successful endeavors of Luther, Calvin, and others, gave a new appearance to many states in this quarter of the world.

The  
 Reforma-  
 tion

\* Reformation is the term generally applied to the religious revolution in the sixteenth century which divided the Western church into two sections, known as the Roman Catholic and the Protestant. Before this era the pope exercised absolute authority over the whole Christian church, with the exception of those countries in which the Greek, or Eastern, church had been established. He also claimed supremacy in temporal affairs wherever his spiritual authority was recognized. Various abuses had in process of time sprung up in the church, and attention had often been called to these both by laymen and clerics. An important movement in the direction of a reformation was begun by Wyclif (1324-84) in England, a movement which, on the Continent, was developed by Huss (1369-1415) and Jerome of Prague (1360-1416), with their Bohemian followers; but the times were not ripe for combined opposition. New and powerful influences, however, were now at work. The Renaissance increased the number of scholars; the new art of printing diffused knowledge; while the universities gave greater attention to the Greek and Hebrew languages, and grew in numbers. Much of the intellectual force and fearlessness brought forth by the Renaissance was turned against the corrupt practices in the church. In the writings of Erasmus (1467-1536) as well as in a host of satires, epigrams, etc., the ecclesiastics of the time were held up to a derision which thoughtful men recognized as just. The condition of the Western church, indeed, was such that a reformation of some kind was now inevitable. The great movement known





POPE LEO

The house of Austria increased in territorial possessions. Europe appeared like a vast republic, the balance of power therein being at this time on a better footing than it was in ancient Greece.

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as the Reformation was started by Martin Luther, an Augustine monk of Erfurt, professor of theology in the University of Wittenberg; and what immediately occasioned it was the sale of indulgences in Germany by a duly accredited agent, Johann Tetzel, a Dominican monk of Leipsic. Luther condemned this abuse, first in a sermon and afterward in ninety-five theses, or questions, which he affixed to the door of the great church, Oct. 31, 1517. This at once aroused public interest, and gained him a number of adherents, among them men of influence in church and state. Luther urged his spiritual superiors and the pope to put a stop to the traffic of Tetzel, and to reform the corruptions of the church in general. A heated controversy now arose. Luther was fiercely assailed, and in 1520 excommunication was pronounced against him by Pope Leo X. Upon this the reformer appealed to a general council; and when his works were burned at Mainz, Cologne, and Louvain, he publicly committed the bull of excommunication with the papal canons and decrees to the flames (December, 1520). From this time Luther formally separated from the Roman church, and many of the principal German nobles; Hutten, Sickingen, Schaumburg, etc., the most eminent scholars, and the University of Wittenberg, publicly declared in favor of the reformed doctrines and discipline. Luther's bold refusal to recant at the Diet of Worms gave him increased power, while the Edict of Worms and the ban of the emperor made his cause a political matter. By his ten months' seclusion in the Wartburg, after the Diet of Worms, Luther was secured from the first consequences of the ban of the empire, and the emperor was so much engaged by French and Spanish affairs that he almost wholly lost sight of the religious ferment in Germany. Leo's successor, Adrian VI, now considered it necessary to interfere, but in answer to his demand for the extirpation of the doctrines of Luther, he received a list of a hundred complaints against the papal chair from the German states assembled at the Diet of Nürnberg (1522). While Luther was publishing his translation of the New Testament, which was soon followed by the translation of the Old, and while Melanchthon was engaged on his *Loci Communes*, serious preparations for the reform of ecclesiastical abuses were made in Pomerania, Silesia, in the Saxon cities, in Suabia, etc., and the Reformation made rapid progress in Germany. Luther's *Liturgy* had no sooner appeared (1522) than it was adopted in Magdeburg and elsewhere. Translations of the Bible into Dutch and French now appeared, and at Meux in France a Lutheran church was organized. In vain did the Sorbonne condemn the principles of Luther, and powers political and ecclesiastical endeavor to stop this movement. In 1525 John, the successor of Luther's first patron, Frederick, in the Saxon electorate, Philip, landgrave of Hesse, and Albert of Brandenburg, duke of Prussia, publicly declared themselves Lutherans. Aided in great measure by the state of political affairs, the movement continued to spread rapidly. In these circumstances the emperor convened the Diet of Augsburg (June, 1530), at which Melanchthon read a statement of the reformed doctrine, now known as the Confession of Augsburg. The Catholic prelates replied to this by requiring the reformers to return to the ancient church within a certain period. The princes who favored the new movement refused to comply with this demand, and in March of the following year they assembled at Schmalkald, and formed the famous league, in terms of which they pledged themselves to uphold the Protestant cause. This decisive step soon attracted powerful support, largely because of its political importance, and among others who joined the Schmalkald League were Francis I, of France, and Henry VIII, of England. After the death of Luther (1546) war broke out, but at the Peace of Augsburg

Luther  
Excom-  
municated

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Almost every state in Europe underwent important revolutions. Germany was considerably improved in its legislation under Maximilian I; the Imperial Chamber and Aulic Council were established.

(1555) the Reformation may be said to have finally triumphed, when each prince was permitted to adopt either the Reformed or the Roman Catholic faith, and Protestantism thus received legal recognition.

The doctrines of the German reformer found a willing adherent in Gustavus Vasa, who, in 1523, became king of Sweden. Gustavus induced the estates of the realm, in the Diet of Westerås (1527) to sanction the confiscation of the monasteries, and declared himself supreme in matters ecclesiastical. The last remains of Catholic usages were abolished at a second Diet of Westerås in 1544. The first systematic measures in favor of the Reformation in Denmark were taken by Frederick I, instigated by his son Christian, who had studied in Germany and become an enthusiastic Lutheran. At a diet held in 1536, at which no member of the clergy was allowed to be present, the assembly decreed the abolition of the Roman Catholic worship in the Danish dominions. In Hungary, where numerous Germans had settled, bringing Lutheranism with them, the new faith for a short time made rapid progress, especially in the cities and among the nobles. In Poland the Reformation found numerous adherents also. Both in Italy and Spain Protestantism was mostly confined to the higher and cultivated classes, the reformed faith taking scarcely any hold on the people at large. In Naples, Venice, Florence, and other cities, Protestant churches were opened; but Protestantism was extirpated in Italy by the vigorous action of the Inquisition, and the instrumentality of the *Index Expurgatorius*. In Spain a few Protestant churches were established, and many persons of mark adopted the views of the reformers. But here also the Inquisition succeeded in arresting the spread of the religious revolution. In the Swiss states the progress of Protestantism was of much more importance. It found a leader in Ulrich Zwingli, a preacher at Zürich, who, by sermons, pamphlets, and public discussions, induced that city to abolish the old, and inaugurate a new Reformed Church. In this course Zürich was followed by Basel, Berne, and other cities. Ultimately this movement was merged in political dissensions between the Reformed and Roman Catholic cantons, and Zwingli himself fell in battle (1531). Between Luther and Zwingli there were differences of opinion, chiefly concerning the Lord's Supper, in which the former showed considerable acrimony toward his fellow reformer. *The Institutes of Calvin* formulated the doctrines of a large body of reformers, who also accepted his ordinances regarding church discipline. After many tedious contests Calvin's creed was virtually accepted in the Netherlands and elsewhere, and it was introduced into Scotland by Knox. In France the Reformation seemed at first to find powerful support. Margaret, queen of Navarre, sister of King Francis I, and many of the higher ecclesiastics favored the reformed doctrine. The New Testament was translated into French, churches to the number of 2,000 were established by 1558, and the Huguenots, as the Protestants were called, formed a large religious party in the state. Unhappily, however, the religious element was mixed with political and personal hatreds, and in the civil strifes, before and after the Massacre of St. Bartholomew (1572), the religious movement declined. The abjuration of Protestantism by Henry IV (1593) was a blow to the Huguenots, and though they obtained toleration and certain privileges by the Edict of Nantes, this was finally revoked in 1685.

Inquisition  
Arrests  
Reformation in  
Spain

The Huguenots

The Reformation in England was only indirectly connected with the reform movement in Germany. Wyclif and the Lollards, the revival of learning, the writings of More, Colet, and Erasmus, the martyrdom of Thomas Bilney, had all combined to render the



The religious disputes brought on a succession of cruel and destructive wars; they were, however, terminated by the treaty of Passau, the peace of 1555, and that of Westphalia.

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doctrine and discipline of the church unpopular. This feeling was greatly increased when the writings of Luther and Tyndale's translation of the Bible found eager readers. Then the political element came in to favor the popular reform movement. Henry VIII, in his efforts to obtain a divorce from Catherine, found it necessary to repudiate the papal supremacy, and declare himself by act of Parliament (1534) the supreme head of the Church of England. To this the pope replied by threats of excommunication, which were not, however, immediately executed. Yet the breach with Rome was complete, so far, at least, as the king was concerned. Under the new laws of supremacy and treason several of the clergy suffered at Tyburn; Sir Thomas More and Fisher, bishop of Rochester, were beheaded at Tower Hill; and the lesser and greater monasteries were suppressed. At this time there were three chief parties in the state. There was the party who still held the pope to be supreme head of the church; the king's party, who rejected papal authority but retained the Roman Catholic faith; and there was the reform party, who rejected both the authority and the doctrine of the Roman Church. The doctrines of the Church of Rome, however, were still the established religion, and in 1539 the *Status of the Six Articles* compelled all men, under penalty of burning, to admit six points of the Roman doctrine, of which the chief was the doctrine of transubstantiation. Yet the king (1544) allowed some progress to be made in the direction of reform by the publication of the *Litany* and some forms of prayer in English. This movement was continued, and the Reformation effected in all essential points during the reign of Henry's successor, Edward VI. The penal laws against the Lollards were abolished; the *Status of the Six Articles* ceased to be enforced; the Protestant ritual and teaching was adopted by the church; all images were removed from churches; a new communion service took the place of the mass; a *First Book of Common Prayer* was compiled by Cranmer, and purged of distinctive Roman doctrine; and in 1549 the *First Act of Uniformity* enjoined the use of this book in all the churches. Still further, in 1551, the newly established faith of the Reformers was summed up in the *Forty-two Articles of Religion*, which, in the reign of Elizabeth, became the *Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England*. By these and other means the Reformation was established generally throughout England.

Church of  
England

In Scotland the movement was more directly connected with the Continent, and in particular with Geneva. The first indication of the struggle against the Roman doctrine is found in the martyrdom (1528) of Patrick Hamilton; and this policy of suppression was continued (1539-46) with great severity by Cardinal Beaton, until he himself became the victim of popular vengeance. Perhaps the most important result of this persecution, and the martyrdom of George Wishart, which Beaton had brought about, was that it determined John Knox to embrace the new reformed faith. In 1546-47 the Scottish reformer established himself as preacher to the Protestant congregation which held the castle of St. Andrews. When the castle was captured by the French fleet, Knox was made prisoner, and treated as a galley-slave, but regained his liberty after about eighteen months' hardship, and settled in England. During the Marian persecutions he withdrew to the Continent, and visited the churches of France and Switzerland, but returned to Scotland in 1559. Here he at once joined the Protestant party; preached in Dundee, Perth, and St. Andrews, amid public tumult and the destruction of images, altars, and churches; and finally, under the protection of the lords of the congregation, he established himself as a preacher of Protestantism in St. Giles, Edinburgh. From this center

John  
Knox

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In France, the feudal government was at length destroyed by Charles VII and Louis II. The wars against England succeeded those of Italy; and those were followed by intestine wars against the Huguenots, or Protestants, which were terminated by the reduction of Rochelle, and the expulsion of the Protestants. In Spain, the three Christian kingdoms were united. This monarchy, founded by Ferdinand V, surnamed the Catholic, arrived at its zenith of power under his grandson, Charles V. It lost a part of its splendor under Philip III and Philip IV, princes without genius, valor, or resources.

Portugal became formidable under Emanuel, but grew weak after the death of Sebastian. The kingdom submitted to the Spanish yoke, which it shook off in 1640 when the house of Braganza, by an unexpected revolution, ascended the throne.

Elizabeth England gained strength under Henry VII, and became from time to time more powerful under his successors, the Tudors, by its policy and its commerce, and particularly so during the reign of Elizabeth. James VI, king of Scotland, next ascended the English throne, and took the title of James I, king of Great Britain; but neither himself, nor his successors, possessed the genius or the activity of that celebrated princess.

Italy was divided into many small states. Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, heretofore cities of the kingdom of Italy, were raised to the dignity of dukedoms. The princes of Florence encouraged the progress of the arts and sciences by honors and rewards. Venice was less considerable for its commerce than formerly. The discovery of the compass enabled other nations to share with the Venetians in the profits from navigation. Genoa also experienced a considerable diminution of commerce from the same cause.

The seven United Provinces threw off the Spanish yoke, and became free; while the Swiss, in the center of their rocky fastnesses, formed governments for the protection of their liberty.

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Knox traveled all over Scotland, teaching the reformed faith; and such was the roused spirit of the people that when the Scottish Parliament assembled (1560), a popular petition was presented demanding the abolition of popery. This was promptly accomplished, and at the assembling of the new Church of Scotland shortly afterward, Knox presented his reformed system of government under the name of the First Book of Discipline, which was adopted by the assembly. The position thus secured by the reformer was maintained, and the Reformation successfully established in Scotland. In Ireland for various causes the Reformation never made much progress.

Denmark, under the king of the house of Oldenburg, now began to make a figure among the powers of Europe. The Swedes threw off the Danish yoke, and elected Gustavus Vasa for their king, who redeemed the luster of the nation. Gustavus Adolphus added considerably to its power by his valor and his victories. Russia also assumed a new face. Iwan Basilowitz delivered his country from the Tartarian yoke. Iwan Basilowitz II extended the empire. The house of Romanof ascended the throne, and commenced those grand schemes which the genius and perseverance of Peter the Great afterward executed.

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Poland flourished under the Jagellon race of princes, but these becoming extinct, foreigners were introduced to the throne. Hungary and Bohemia, after having had kings of different nations, fell to the house of Austria.

The Ottoman empire augmented its grandeur and power under Solyman II. After his death, the government, falling into the hands of indolent and effeminate princes, became considerably weakened, and the unbridled power of the Janissaries now arrived at its highest pitch.

The political system of Europe experienced a change at the commencement of this period. France extended its territory, and became very powerful under Louis XIV; but the wars carried on by this prince against Spain, Holland, and the empire, exhausted the resources of the kingdom.

Seventh  
 Period  
 1648-1714

Germany presented some interesting changes. Leopold established a ninth electorate in favor of the house of Hanover. Augustus, elector of Saxony, was elected king of Poland; and George, elector of Hanover, ascended the throne of Great Britain. Prussia was erected into a kingdom under Frederick, the third elector of Brandenburg, who took the title of Frederick I.

Spain lost power under the latter princes of Austria, and was dismembered by the war of the Spanish succession which terminated in favor of the house of Bourbon.

Alphonsus VI, king of Portugal, was deposed and the kingdom declared independent of Spain by the peace of Lisbon.

In England, Charles I was beheaded, and the monarchy abolished. Oliver Cromwell was declared protector of the Commonwealth, which lasted but a short time after his death. The Stuart family were established again on the throne. James II

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abdicated. William, stadtholder of the United Provinces, was elected king, and secured the succession of the house of Hanover at the death of Anne.

Italy underwent an almost entire change by the peace of Utrecht, and the house of Austria was put in possession of its most fertile countries. At the same time the house of Savoy, profiting both by the war and by the peace, increased its possessions in Italy, and thereby raised its influence in Europe.

The United Provinces increased in riches and power: their independence was secured by the peace of Westphalia; but they engaged in wars which drained them of their treasures, without augmenting their power.

The republics of Switzerland and of Venice appeared to be of less consequence among the European states than heretofore; but the former continued to be happy in its mountains, the latter tranquil among its lakes.

Sweden, whose power was prodigious under Charles X and Charles XII, lost much of its grandeur after the defeat of the latter prince at Pultowa. Russia became almost immediately enlightened and powerful under the auspices of Peter the Great. Poland, unfortunate under John Casimir, was made respectable under John Sobieski. Hungary was desolated by continual intestine war, and deluged with the blood of its own inhabitants.

The Ottoman empire continued weak under princes incapable of governing, who placed the scepter in the hands of ministers altogether as weak and incapable as themselves.

Eighth  
 Period  
 1714-1789

The eighth period was replete in negotiations, in treaties, and in wars. The balance of power, intended systematically to produce perpetual peace, had, on the contrary, been the means of exciting continual war. The peace of Utrecht, signed by almost all the powers of Europe, failed to reconcile the emperor and the king of Spain. Philip V commenced war. The English and Dutch procured the treaty of Vienna, in 1731, which put an end to that calamity; but a new war commenced on the election of a king of Poland. France declared war against the Emperor, which terminated by the peace of Vienna. The death of Charles VI, 1740, produced a new war, more important than the former war, and of longer duration. France took the part of the elector of Bavaria, as a competitor for imperial dignity against the house of Austria. The success of the

arms of the French and Bavarians induced the queen of Hungary to detach the king of Prussia from the alliance. The defection of this prince changed the face of affairs; and the subsequent victories obliged the belligerent powers to conclude the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, which afforded but a short calm to ensanguined Europe. The houses of Bourbon and Austria, so long enemies and rivals, now united their efforts to maintain the balance of power. But the English and French soon found pretext for new disagreements, and war was again declared. The king of Prussia took part with the English, and the king of Spain with the French. The war terminated much in favor of the English, and peace was concluded in 1763.

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In Italy the houses of Austria and Bourbon had the principal sway. Savoy, assisted by England, augmented its power; the island of Sardinia was given in exchange for Sicily. Charles Emanuel III joined a small part of the Milanese to this territory, and Corsica became a province to France. In Holland, William IV, prince of Orange, was declared stadtholder of the Seven United Provinces.

Sweden, after the death of Charles XII, underwent an entire change: the house of Holstein-Eutin ascended the throne. Gustavus III, the second king of this family, seized upon the liberties of his people, and became a despot. In Russia the four princesses who had held the scepter since the death of Peter the Great, rendered the empire worthy of the great genius who may be styled its founder. Poland was dismembered by its three powerful neighbors, Russia, Austria, and Prussia.

Prussia, which had not ceased to aggrandize itself since the elector of Brandenburg received the title of king, was raised to the height of grandeur and power under the wise government of that celebrated hero and philosopher, Frederick II.

In Turkey, Achmet III was obliged to surrender his crown to his nephew, Mohammed V. Mustayha III espoused the cause of the Poles against the Russians, and sustained great losses. His successor, Achmet IV, put an end to this unfortunate war by a peace, to gain which he made great sacrifices.

The English colonies in America revolted from the mother country, threw off its yoke, and declared themselves independent. France, Spain, and Holland declared in their favor; when, after

American  
 Revolt

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Period  
1789-1899French  
Revo-  
lutionAge of  
Napoleon

a war of eight years, it was terminated in 1783 by a peace, whereby they were acknowledged as an independent nation.

The ninth period was ushered in by one of the greatest revolutions that ever happened in Europe, or in the world. The French, so long habituated to despotism, threw off, as it were in a moment, the yoke imposed upon them and their forefathers for many ages. Their king, Louis XVI, apparently joined in the effort, but at length wanting firmness for so trying an occasion, prevaricated, and attempted to fly; he was seized, tried, iniquitously condemned, and executed. His queen, Marie Antoinette, of Austria, suffered also under the guillotine. The powers of Europe, headed by the emperor and the king of Prussia, combined to crush the revolutionary spirit of France. Great Britain, Spain, Russia, Holland, Sardinia, Naples, the pope, and a variety of inferior powers, joined the confederacy; to this was added a powerful party in the interior, and the flames of civil war spread far and wide. Massacre, rapine, and horror stalked through the land; notwithstanding which, the Convention formed a constitution, levied numerous armies, and conquered Holland, the Netherlands, and all the country west of the Rhine. Italy submitted also to the Gallic republicans, and Germany was penetrated to its center.

Several changes took place in the government. Bonaparte conquered Egypt; and, in his absence, France lost a great part of his conquests in Italy. He returned, and assuming the government under the title of first consul, reconquered Italy. Soon after, he established the Italian republic, was himself constituted president, and made peace with England, which lasted but a short time. A new war commenced. Bonaparte was elected emperor of the French.

Great Britain, notwithstanding the part it took in the confederate war, pushed its commerce and manufactures to an extent hitherto unknown. It made several conquests, nearly annihilated the French navy, and obliged the army to evacuate Egypt. Peace was restored, but was of short duration. War again commenced; a military spirit showed itself throughout the nation, and tremendous efforts were made. French impetuosity and British valor were for many years witnessed in the Spanish peninsula. Russia was invaded by a powerful host under Napoleon Bonaparte, but the invaders were utterly annihilated. The crowning act of the war

was the ever-memorable battle of Waterloo, whereby the overthrow of Napoleon was effected, and the peace of the world restored, after gigantic efforts and sacrifices, on all sides, which have no parallel in history.

After the fall of the empire, France retired within her old limits; the minor German princes constituted their states in a loose confederation, and of this Austria assumed the presidency. Italy was parceled out among numerous despotic princes, and the Venetian dominions became Austrian. The Netherlands became once more a kingdom, ultimately separated into Holland and Belgium.

The chief changes on the map of Europe since the middle of the nineteenth century have been the consolidation of Germany as an empire, under the headship of Prussia, and the restitution to it of Alsace-Lorraine; the retirement of Austria out of Germany, and her reorganization as the Austro-Hungarian monarchy; the unification of Italy as a kingdom; and the gradual diminution of Turkish territory by the recognition of the independence of Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro, and of the autonomy of Bulgaria.

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## THE HISTORY OF GREECE

ALSO MACEDONIA

[*Authorities*: Baedeker, *Handbook for Greece* (1894); J. T. Bent, *Modern Life and Thought Among the Greeks* (1891); Victor Berard, *La Turquie et l' Hellenisme Contemporaine* (Paris, 1893); Bianconi, *Ethnographie de la Turquie, de l' Europe et de la Greece* (Paris, 1877); R. A. H. Bickford-Smith, *Greece under King George* (London, 1893); Dudley Campbell, *Turks and Greeks* (1887); Finley, *A History of Greece* (7 vols., Oxford, 1877); R. C. Jebb, *Modern Greece* (two lectures, 1880); P. von Melingo, *Griechenland in unseren Tagen* (Vienna 1892); Reclus, *Geographie Universelle*; J. R. Rodd, *The Customs and Lore of Modern Greece* (1892); C. K. Tuckerman, *The Greeks of To-day*; Wordsworth, *Greece: Pictorial, Descriptive, and Historical* (new edition, London, 1882); Annual Reports published by the Greek government.]



GREECE is a kingdom occupying the southern portion of the most easterly of the three peninsulas which Europe projects into the Mediterranean. It was called Hellas by its own inhabitants in ancient times. The name Greece was given to it by the Romans, and was not used by any Greek writer known before Aristotle.

The name Greece, or Hellas, has been applied at different times to territory of widely different extent. At first Hellas denoted nothing but the spot in Thessaly where the tribe of Hellenes dwelt, and in later times, after Philip of Macedon obtained a seat at the Amphictyonic Council,\* it meant the whole peninsula south of the Balkan Mountains, including Macedonia. But at the period of its greatest distinction it

Limits of  
Ancient  
Greece

“Am-  
phicty-  
onic  
Council”

\*The Amphictyonic Council was a celebrated council of the states of ancient Greece. An *amphictyony* meant originally an association of several tribes for the purpose of protecting some temple common to them all, and for maintaining worship within it, and it was only later that it acquired also a political importance. Its members were called *amphictyons* (“the dwellers around”). Such associations existed at Argos, Delos, and elsewhere; but the most important was that at Anthela, near Thermopylæ, the seat of which was transferred later to Delphi through Dorian influence. The members of this league were



excluded these two regions, and was restricted to the part of the peninsula south of the Cambunian range, and the islands of the surrounding sea. Its ancient limits, however, can not be rigidly defined. Its northern frontier was never precisely settled, and the name Hellas expresses not a geographical but an ethnological unity.

A history of Greece, therefore, is a history of the Hellenic people wherever they were to be found, whether in their own peninsula or as a colony in Sicily or Africa. Still the name was usually applied to the land which formed the geographical center of the race, of which the greatest length was 250 miles, and the greatest breadth 180 miles. The territory comprised northern Greece, all north of Maliaë and Ambrocian Gulfs. Central Greece extended from these gulfs to the Isthmus of Corinth, the Peloponnesus to the south of the Isthmus and the islands, Eubœa in the east, the Ionian Islands in the Ionian Sea; on the west Crete, and Cyprus in the south, and the Cyclades and Sporades across the mouth of the Ægean from the southeast headlands of Attica and Eubœa.

Continental Greece consists of a series of natural cantons, hedged from one another and from the outer world by mountain ranges from 5,000 to 8,000 feet high, and so was almost by a physical necessity occupied in the times of its ancient political independence by seventeen separate states, as follows: Thessaly in North Greece; Arcanania, Ætolia, Locris, Doris, Megoris, Bœotia, and Attica in Central Greece; and Corinthia, Sicyonia, Achaia, Elis, Messenia, Laconia, Argolis, and Arcadia in the Peloponnesus. Modern Greece, though not so considerable in extent as the Greece of ancient date, comprises the territories of all the most celebrated and interesting of the Grecian states.

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States of  
 Greece

twelve in number, and were, according to Æschines: the Thessalians, Bœotians, Dorians, Ionians, Perrhæbians, Magnetes, Locrians, Cætæans, Phthiots, Malians, and Phocians, and the Dolopians who are mentioned in other accounts. The members of this confederation bound themselves by an oath not to destroy any city of the Amphictyons, nor cut off their streams in war or peace, and to employ all their power in punishing those who did so, or those who pillaged the property of the god, or injured his temple at Delphi. So excellent an oath was very indifferently kept. In the primitive period of Greek history, it had a beneficial and civilizing influence; but its more important interferences in the affairs of Greece were directly contrary to the spirit of its institution. The first of these was the so-called *sacred* war, waged from 595 to 585 B. C., against the Phocian city of Crissa. The second *sacred* war, from 355 to 346 B. C., gave occasion to the fatal interference of Philip of Macedon in the affairs of Greece; and a third *sacred* war, instigated by Philip, was but the prelude to the victory of Chæronea, so fatal to Greek liberty.

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GREECE

Early In-  
habitants

With the early history of Greece began the first political and intellectual life of Europe. The ancient Greeks were a branch of that family which included most of the European peoples, and also the Persians and the Hindus, and is variously called Indo-Germanic, Indo-European, and Aryan. It is a matter of little doubt that the earliest inhabitants of Greece were barbarous in the extreme. It is quite probable that they entered Greece from the north, and that they were nomad tribes, depending for subsistence mainly on their flocks, though they knew how in extremity to cultivate the ground in a primitive fashion. They were then in the Stone age, and were little acquainted with metals. As they moved southward in separate tribes, the foremost were impelled forward by the pressure of those behind, and even when the whole of the peninsula had been for some time filled and fully occupied, a fresh wave of emigrants might wash over the whole country, disturbing everything. Such a wave was the "return of the Heraclidæ" \* in the Dorian† invasion. The result was to drive emigrants on over the isles of Greece to plant Greek cities and Greek culture on the coasts of Asia Minor. At later times, Sicily, the Black Sea, and Libya were dotted with Greek colonies, and as we have noted above, wherever Greeks were, there to the Greek mind was Hellas.

By slow degrees they advanced toward civilization, forming themselves into regular societies to cultivate the lands and build towns

The  
Heracli-  
dæ

\* The Heraclidæ in its widest sense, were all "the descendants of Heracles" (Hercules), but the term is specially applied to those adventurers who, founding their claims on their supposed descent from the great hero (to whom Zeus had promised a portion of the land), were said to have joined the Dorians in the conquest of the Peloponnesus. Several expeditions were undertaken for this purpose, the last and greatest occurring eighty years after the Trojan war. The chiefs of the invaders defeated Tisamenus, son of Orestes, and grandson of Agamemnon, and took possession of the Peloponnesus.

The  
Dorians

† The Dorians were one of the great Hellenic races who took their name from the mythical Dorus, the son of Hellen, who settled in Doris: but Herodotus says that in the time of King Deucalion they inhabited the district Phthiotis; and in the time of Dorus, the son of Hellen, the country called Histiaëotis, at the foot of Ossa and Olympus. But the statement of Apollodorus is more probable, according to which they would appear to have occupied the whole country along the northern shore of the Corinthian Gulf. Indeed, Doris proper was far too small and insignificant a district to furnish a sufficient number of men for a victorious invasion of the Peloponnesus. In this remarkable achievement they were conjoined with the Heraclidæ, and ruled in Sparta. Doric colonies were then founded in Italy, Sicily, and Asia Minor. Strikingly as all the four nations of Greece differed from each other in language, manners, and form of government, the Dorians in particular differed from the Ionians. They preserved a certain primitive solidity and earnestness, in contrast with the effeminacy and grace of the latter.

and cities, but their original barbarity and mutual violence prevented them from uniting as one nation, even into any considerable community. However, when we reach the earliest reliable parts of Grecian history in contrast with nations still in the tribal stage, the Greeks had the life of cities, and in contrast with the despotic monarchies of the East, they recognized the principle that no personal rule should be unlimited. They appeared as a people to obtain to reason, and to a native instinct of measure. In the political sphere this led them to aim at a due balance of powers

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INTERIOR OF PARTHENON, ATHENS

and tendencies in the state, at the definition of duties and the protection of rights. In the intellectual sphere it led them to explore causes, to figure them in like series, and to avoid aggressive expression for the social feelings and sympathies.

The historical interest of Greece therefore begins with the first glimpse of that higher life, out of which the civilization of Europe arose, and not at the point where details and dates became approximately certain. At a later stage the Greek commonwealths offer the most instructive study which the ancient world affords in the war of oligarchic and democratic institutions. Then

Origina-  
 tor of  
 European  
 Culture

**DIVISION III** first the Roman power rises, culminates and declines; Greek history  
**EUROPE** assumes a new character and a new interest. Two main threads  
**ANCIENT** link together the early and later history of civilized man. One  
**AND** passes through Rome, and is Latin; one passes through the New  
**MODERN** Rome in the East, and is Greek.  
**GREECE**

**Periods of** The history of ancient Greece may be divided into three principal  
**Greek** periods, — its rise, its power, and its fall. The first extends from  
**History** the origin of the people to Lycurgus, 875 B. C.; the second extends  
 from that time to the conquest of the Greeks by the Romans, 146  
 B. C.; the third shows the Greeks as a conquered people, constantly  
 on the decline, until at length, about 300 A. D., the old Grecian  
 states were swallowed up in the Byzantine empire. The history of  
 Greece since that time has no special bearing upon the civilization  
 of the world, but the important events in the nation as it has  
 existed will be considered in this chapter.

**Tradition** According to tradition, the Pelasgi under Inachus were the first  
**as to** people who wandered into Greece. They dwelt in caves in the  
**First In-** earth, supporting themselves on wild fruits, and eating the flesh of  
**habitants** their conquered enemies until Phoroneus, who is called King of  
 Argos, began to introduce civilization among them. Aristotle says:  
 “The only Hellas is the country of Dodona and the Achelous, for  
 the Seloï lived there, and the people then called the *Graikoi*, now  
 the Hellenes.” There is good reason to believe that the ancestors  
 of the Indo-European nations, before the Hellenes parted from  
 the common stock in Central Asia, had attained a certain degree  
 of civilization. The first great migration from the common home  
 in Central Asia was that which carried the ancestors of the Teu-  
 tonic and Lithuanian tribes into northwestern Europe; the next  
 was that which carried the ancestors of the Greeks, Italians, and  
 Celts into southern and southwestern Europe. The Hellenes as a  
 race were first known in two great branches, each with well-marked  
 characteristics of its own, — Dorians and Ionians.

**Ionians**  
**and**  
**Dorians**

The Highlands, or Phrygia in Asia Minor, have the best claim to  
 be regarded as the point of departure of the distinctly Hellenic  
 migrations. In these fertile regions of northwestern Asia Minor,  
 the Hellenes, after the Islanders had left them, may have lived  
 first as a part of the Phrygian nation, and afterward as a separate  
 people. From these cities, a great wave of migration seemed to  
 have carried over the Hellespont into Europe a population which

diffused itself through Greece and the Peloponnesus as well as over the coasts and islands of the archipelago. In advanced ages, when the kinship they perhaps dimly suspected was no longer recognized, the Hellenes called the earlier occupants of the land Pelasgians; the second epoch of migration from the Phrygian Islands appears to have been one by which single tribes with special gifts and qualities were carried forth to become the quickeners of historical life among inert masses of population among those "Pelasgians," who had long been contented to follow the calm routine of herdsmen. The ancestors of the Dorians passed into the highlands of northern Greece, and there developed the type of hardy mountaineer which united the robust vigor of a warrior with the firm element of ancestral proportions in general and in civil government. Of the two branches, the Ionian and the Dorian, the Ionian was that which most actively influenced the early development of the Greeks, but the Ionians themselves derived the first impulses of their progress from a foreign source.

Those Canaanites, known by the Greek name of Phœnicians, inhabited the long narrow strip of territory between Lebanon and the sea. From the evidence of the Egyptian monuments, the Phœnicians were a great commercial people as early as the sixteenth century B. C. Cyprus, visible from the heights of Lebanon, was the first stage of Phœnician advance into the Western waters, and to the last there was in Cyprus a Semitic element, side by side with the Indo-Europeans. From Cyprus the Phœnician navigators proceeded to the eastern coast of Asia Minor, where the Phœnician colonists gradually blended with the natives until the entire seaboard had become in a great measure subject to the Phœnician nations. Thus the Greeks came into contact with the Phœnicians, and learned from them much concerning the art of navigation and the building of vessels. The Phœnicians had another influence upon the Greeks, in that they established trading settlements on the islands or on the coasts of the Greek seas. Thus about the end of the ninth century B. C., the Phœnician alphabet became diffused throughout Greece. This alphabet was itself derived from the alphabet of the Egyptian hieroglyphics, which was brought into Phœnicia by the Phœnician settlers in the Delta. The direct Phœnician influence on Greece lasted until about 600 B. C. In art and science, in everything which concerned the higher culture,

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**The Pelasgians**

**Phœnician Influence**

**DIVISION III** Phœnicia had a more or less direct influence, but they seem to  
**EUROPE** have been the great carriers from the East to the West of Egyptian,  
**ANCIENT** Syrian, or Babylonian ideas.  
**AND**  
**MODERN**

**GREECE** The legends of European Greece speak clearly of foreign  
 elements in civilization and in religious worship which came in from  
 the East. The Ionian Greeks of Asia Minor, after having been  
 in intercourse with Phœnicia and Egypt, were the chief agents in  
 diffusing the new ideas among their kinsmen on the western side  
 of the Ægean Sea. Asiatic Greeks, who had settled among the  
 Egyptians in the Delta, or who had lived amid Phœnician colonies  
 in Asia Minor, would easily be confounded, in popular rumor, with  
 Egyptians or Phœnicians. The Asiatic Greeks, as pioneers of  
 civilization in European Greece, appear sometimes under the name  
 of Carians, sometimes as Leleges, who are associated especially  
 with Lycia, Miletus, and the Troad. In the East the seafaring  
 Ionians gave their name to the whole Greek people, as in the  
 Hebrew Scriptures the Greeks are "the sons of Javan," the Unim  
 of the Egyptians, and the Iauna of the Persians. It does not  
 appear that the European Greeks of early days used "Ionian" as  
 a collective name for the Asiatic Greeks. But such names as  
*Iasion*, *Iason*, *Iasian*, point to a sense that the civilization which  
 came from Asia Minor was connected with Ionia.

**Various  
Names of  
Greeks**

**Religion** The appearance of new elements in religious worship\* is one  
 great mark of the period during which Greece in Europe was still  
 being changed by influences, Greek or foreign, from the east.

Little precise knowledge of the earliest kingdoms and states can  
 be extracted from the legends as they have come down to us, but

**Ancient  
Worship**

\*The worship which the fathers of the Hellenes had brought with them from the com-  
 mon home in Asia was that of the "Heaven-father," the unseen father whose temple is  
 in the sky, and whose altar is most fitly raised on the mountain top, as the ancient  
 shrine of the Arcadian Zeus was the grove on the summit of Mount Lycæus. This  
 is the "Pelasgian Zeus, dwelling afar," to whom the Homeric Achilles prays. But  
 as the united Hellenic race parted into tribes, so to the first simple worship of  
 the Heaven-father was added a variety of local cults. And as mariners from other  
 lands began to visit the coasts, they brought in their own gods with them. Thus  
 Melcarth, the city-god of Tyre, is recognized in Melicertes as worshiped at the isthmus of  
 Corinth. In one Greek form of the worship of Heracles, Astarte, the goddess of the  
 Phœnician sailors, becomes Aphrodite, who springs from the sea. The myth of Adonis,  
 the worship of the Achæan Demeter, are other examples. There are, again, other divini-  
 ties who came to European Greece, not directly from the non-Hellenic east, but as deities  
 already at home among the Ionians. Such was Poseidon, and, above all, Apollo, whose  
 coming is everywhere a promise of light and joy.

some general inferences are warranted. The tradition that Minos cleared the archipelago of pirates, and established a wide maritime dominion; that he was the first to sacrifice to the Charities, and that Dædalus wrought for him, may be taken at least as indicating that Crete played a prominent part in the early history of Greek culture, and that there was a time when the Cretan kings were strong enough to protect commerce in the Ægean waters. The Lydians, in whose origin Semitic and Aryan elements appear to

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The  
Lydians

THE PROPYLÆA, ATHENS

have been mingled, have a twofold interest in the dawn of Hellenic history. First, they represent the earliest kingdom in Asia Minor of which anything is certainly known. Secondly, they were on land what the Phœnicians were on the sea,—carriers, or mediators, between the Greeks and the East. In the northwest corner of Asia Minor, a branch of the Dardani—whose ancestor is described as worshiping the Pelasgian Zeus—founded the kingdom of the Troas, the land of Troy. It has been remarked that the double names of the Trojan heroes—Alexander, Paris, Hector, Darius—point to the twofold relation-

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Cadmus  
 of  
 Thebes

ship of the Trojans, on the one side to Hellas, on the other side to Asia. Besides there was a race known as the Minyæ, whose early glories are linked with the story of "Jason and the Argonauts," moving southward from the shores of the Gulf of Pagasæ into the valley of Lake Copias, and founding the Bœotian Orchomenus.

The early greatness of Thebes is associated with the name of Cadmus, the king-priest, who introduced the art of writing, who built the citadel, and founded a system of artificial irrigation. Then comes a period of traditional migrations in Greece proper, in which age a Pelopid dynasty ruled at Mycenæ and fought against Troy. This is the period of great displacements of population within the mainland of European Greece. The first of these migrations is that of the people afterward known as Thessalians, which occurred, according to the legends, sometime before 1124 B. C., or about sixty years after the fall of Troy. About twenty years later, in the mythological chronology, occurred the more famous migration known as the "return of the Heraclidæ," or the Dorian invasion.

Period of  
 Great  
 Migra-  
 tions

Of the Dorian invasion itself it is known that the tribe which had occupied Epirus moved into the valley of the Peneus, and was henceforth known as the Thessalians; that probably in consequence of this the Arnæans, who had occupied Thessaly, were forced forward into the basin of the Copias, where they are known to history as the Bœotians; while from Doris bands of warriors kept crossing the Corinthian Gulf, finding their way across Arcadia to the south and east of the Peloponnese, and there forming Dorian settlements. Possibly to the same period we may assign the occupation of Elis by the Æolians. Attica lying out of the direct line of impact, which was from north to south, was unaffected by these movements, except that fugitive families especially of the same Ionic race as the inhabitants of Attica, took refuge there. On the other hand, it is to this movement that the Dorian state, Sparta, which was to be the great and victorious rival of Athens, owed its origin, and indeed we may say its subsequent greatness. The constitution and the peculiar institutions which made the Spartans a nation of soldiers, are indeed referred, rather by myth than tradition, to a great legislator, Lycurgus. But they are in truth partly Indo-European customs preserved more faithfully by Sparta than by other Greeks, and still more the outcome of the perpetual strug-



gle for existence which for generations was waged by the handful of Spartans against the large numbers of the native inhabitants. The Dorians settled in Sparta were indeed but a garrison in the beginning; and, to the end, their national life was that of the camp. Among the other consequences of the Dorian invasion the one which most calls for notice is that in the various districts affected by it the original inhabitants were reduced to slavery; some being like the Helots in Sparta, serfs attached to the soil and belonging to the state rather than to any individual owner; others enjoying personal freedom, local self-government, though not political rights; and both being very different from the bought slaves, usually foreign, who formed the foundation on which Athenian civilization, for instance, was based.

This period covers what is sometimes called the Heroic Age, to which belonged Hercules, Jason, Pirithous, Thessius, and the bards and sages Tamyris, Amphion, Orpheus, Chiron, and many others. A warlike spirit filled the whole nation, so that every quarrel called the heroes of Greece to arms; as, for instance, the war against Thebes, and the Trojan war. The latter war deprived many kingdoms of their princes, and produced a general confusion, of which the Heraclidæ took advantage eighty years after the destruction of Troy to possess themselves of the Peloponnesus. They drove out the Ionians and Achæans, and took refuge in Attica. But not finding here sufficient room, Nelius led an Ionian colony in 1044 to Asia Minor, where a colony of Æolians from the Peloponnesus had already settled, and was followed eighty years later by a colony of Dorians. In other states republics were founded; in Phocis, in Thebes, and in the Asiatic colonies, and at length also in Athens and many other places, so that for the next 400 years all the southern part of Greece was for the most part occupied by republics. Their prosperity and the fineness of the climate, in the meantime, made the Asiatic colonies the mother of arts and learning. They gave birth to the songs of Homer and Hesoid. Their commerce and navigation flourished. Greece, however, still retained the ancient simplicity of manners, and was unacquainted with luxury. If the population of any state became too numerous, colonies were sent out; for example, in the seventh and eighth centuries, the powerful colonies of Rhegium, Syracuse, Sybaris, Crotona, Tarentum, Gela, Locris, and Messena were planted in

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**The  
Heroic  
Age****Republics  
of  
Greece**

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Sicily and the southern parts of Italy. The small independent states of Greece needed a common bond of union. The bond was found in the temple of Delphi, the Amphictyonic council, and the solemn games, among which the Olympic were the most distinguished, the institution, or rather revival, of which 776 B. C., furnishes the Greeks with a chronological era. From this time Athens and Sparta began to surpass the other states of Greece in power and importance.

The  
 Colonies  
 Lead in  
 Ad-  
 vanced  
 Ideas

In political life and constitutional history the stages through which Greece proper went were anticipated in the colonies; the change by which monarchy was set aside by aristocracy did, indeed, perhaps, take place about the same time at home and in the colonies, but the change by which aristocratical government was over-



RUINS OF THE TEMPLE OF ÆGINA



FRONT ELEVATION, TEMPLE OF ÆGINA,  
 AS RESTORED

thrown and democracy established was incomparably more rapid in the colonies. A colony is not the place in which privilege flourishes; tradition is less potent and individual energy more certain of its reward than at home. It was in the colonies, the Western not the Eastern, that the custom which preceded law was first reduced to writing, and the sole right of expounding it withdrawn from the privileged classes. It was in the colonies also that tyranny was first invented. A Greek tyrant was usually an aristocrat who, under the pretense of relieving the misery of the people, acquired a power which he used for crushing his own class and the people beneath his dominion. As he acquired his power by force, so by force he maintained it, and by force he lost it, generally in a very brief time, though it must be remembered that Lycurgus, under

the tyrant Gela, defeated the Carthaginian power, and under his successor, the magnificent Heiro, almost made Sicily one state.

The rapid development of the Greek states in Asia Minor is testified to by the fact that a large number of colonists founded other colonies. The coasts of Macedonia and Thrace were colonized from Eubœa, and it was the Chalcidians of Eubœa who led the way in the colonization of the West; that is, in Italy and in Sicily. Corinth was a great colonizing power, as is evident by Syracuse, Ambracia, Actonius, Appolonia, and Leuces. These colonies in turn sent out colonies.

Thus all three of the basins of which the Mediterranean consists passed out of the hands of the Phœnicians who had hitherto monopolized them, into the hands of the Greeks, as a rule without bloodshed, for the Phœnicians were traders, and did not love fighting. But eventually the Carthaginians made a stand, and in 532 B. C. an alliance with the Etruscans defeated the Greeks off Corsica, and secured the safety of their possessions in Africa and of the few towns left them in Sicily. Great, however, as was the expansion of Hellas and her colonies, no Greek state ever possessed a colonial empire; the colonies could not and would not be governed from home. The difficulties of communication and the Greek love of autonomy secured the independence of the colonies as far as the mother states were concerned, but not as against neighboring and foreign powers. Thus the Asiatic Greeks fell an easy prey to the Lydian monarch, Crœsus,\* and then to the Persian Cyrus, the conqueror of Crœsus in 546 B. C. Thus the Persian monarch was brought under the necessity of absorbing or endeavoring to absorb Greece in the same way as the Roman empire was compelled to annex Britain.

The weakness of Greece in the face of an invader was that although the Greeks were no longer nomads, but had reached the stage of city life, and although the bond of blood and kingship was being displaced by the tide of neighborhood and territorial organization, numerous communities were subject to no central government. Most of the small states in Greece were merely cities with but three or four miles of territory, excepting two, Attica and Sparta. By what process of coalescence the foreign village inhabitants of Attica became united with Athens in the seat of govern-

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**Colonial  
Expansion****Greeks  
Meet  
Cartha-  
ginians****Lack of  
Central  
Govern-  
ment**

\* See Asia Minor, Vol. III, p. 972.

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## EUROPE

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MODERN

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**Solon**

ment is not known, nor can it be more than merely said that before the Persian wars, Attica had passed through several social and political crises. Solon's\* reforms remedied the latter, but his

\* Solon was the famous lawgiver of ancient Athens, born probably about 640 or 638 B. C., and died about 558 or 559. He traced his descent from the royal family of Attica. He became a trader, an occupation which at once brought him wealth, and opened up rich stores of observation and experience to his inquiring mind. Doubtless to the wide extent of his travels must be ascribed that unprejudiced political genius by which he was to create a constitution such as had never existed in the world before. He was known also as a writer of graceful and amatory verses, but later his muse soared to a higher strain, and sang the triumphs of his legislation and the blessing of the gods on his reforms. One of the finest of his elegies owes its preservation to its being quoted by Demosthenes "to show (as he says) how Solon hated fellows like Æschines." The Megarian war (610-600) saw the occasion of Solon's first political achievements. The sarcasms of his stirring Tyrtaean verse induced the desponding Athenians to continue the struggle, and Solon was placed at the head of an expedition to Salamis. Suddenly landing there, he drove out the Megarian garrison, and won the "lovely island" for Athens; finally the dispute was settled by the arbitration of Sparta in favor of Athens. Solon's influence, already wide, was increased by the strong position he took up a little later in behalf of the Delphic oracle against its oppressors. But the unholy murder of Cylon still rested as a stain upon Athens; Nicæa and Salamis were again lost; and superstitious fears took hold of the people.

But the distress of Attica was not so much religious as economic. The particular grievance which brought matters to a head was the law of debt. The want of a middle class made the contrast between the opulence of the nobility and the indigence of the poor more glaring. A desperate conflict was imminent, when in 594 both parties concurred in inviting the poet and devoted patriot, Solon, to assume the archonship, and pacify his distracted country. "It is not the will of the gods that our city should perish," sang the poet in noble numbers; "it is the desire of gain which will bring us to ruin; the thoughts of our leaders are not honest, and their greed will bring great evils upon them. Many of the poor go into foreign lands, sold as slaves, and burdened with shameful bonds." His first measure was the famous Seisachtheia, and the remedy was severe. A limit was placed on vast accumulation of lands, the person of the debtor was safe whatever his obligations, all debts public and private were canceled. The reform of the money-standard was made, with the view not so much of assisting debtors by reducing their debts (73 of the old drachmas were recoined into 100 of the new) as of simplifying trade with Asia Minor, and opening up new fields for Athenian enterprise. Then the poet sang the end of his labors: "Many citizens who had been sold into slavery I brought back to Athens their home; some of them spoke Attic no longer, their speech being changed in their many wanderings. Others who had learned the habits of slaves at home, and trembled before a master, I made to be free men. All this I accomplished by authority, uniting force with justice, and I fulfilled my promise." On laying down office at the end of the year he was requested to reform the entire political constitution of Athens. Solon's object was to destroy the power of the Gentes, and give the poorest class some control over the officers and the law. On the division of the people into four classes, rated according to income, a division which our latest authority, the *Constitution of Athens*, assigns to Draco, his reforms were based. The first class (Pentacosiomedimni) were such as possessed an annual income of not less than 500 medimni of corn, the second class (Hippeis) were rated at 300, the third (Zeugitai) at 200, the fourth (Thetes) consisted of all below the Zeugitai.

On each of the four certain duties were imposed. The three highest provided the land

political measures did not prevent the institution of tyranny, that of Pisistratus and his sons. The tyrants, however, were expelled, and the democracy of Athens placed on the path which it was to follow, by Clisthenes.

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army of Attica, while the Thetes, as rowers in the triremes, formed the most important part of the navy, one day to prove the salvation of Greece and the mainstay of the Athenian empire. The chief offices of state were restricted to the Pentacosiomedimni; the second and third classes were eligible for minor functions. If the Thetes were not admitted to office, their inclusion in the Attic tribes, or phylæ, their new right of sitting in the Assembly, electing the public magistrates, and passing sentence on their conduct at the end of their year of office, made them practically the sovereign power in the state; and Aristotle traces the swift development of Athenian democracy to the judicial powers received from Solon. The Boule of 400, another of the great lawgiver's creations, was formed by the election of 100 members from each tribe, and took the place of Draco's council of 401, of which we first learn also in the newly discovered Aristotelian papyrus. The democratic nature of Solon's Council is proved by its subsequent history. The Areopagus continued as before to be the guardian of the laws and the public morals; it decided also on all grave criminal cases. If he did not originate it, Solon saw the wisdom of preserving and strengthening a body which, by its nature, comprised the best representatives of the highest class of citizens. "It was," says Æschylus, "the bulwark of the land and city, the like of which no man had seen either in Scythia or in the island of Pelops; a council incorrupt, awful, and severe; a watchful guardian over those who slept." The last of his political reforms was the institution of the Heliæa or popular court of law, the members of which were men of more than thirty years of age chosen annually by lot from every class. The object of its creation was to serve as a balance to the Areopagus, whose judicial supremacy might go too far in the interests of the aristocracy who composed it.

But Solon's work was not yet done. The laws of Draco were not suited to a more civilized age; not only was the severity of punishment for infringement out of all proportion to the offense, but Draco's conception of law appeared inadequate to the comprehensive views of Solon, to whom the function of law was contained not less in directing the citizen's most intimate relations and arrangements than in the guidance of his political and public conduct. Solon's regulations ranged over every province of life. All Draco's laws were repealed except those relating to murder. A limit was placed on the quantity of land that might be held in Attica; no citizen could be enslaved for debt, and absolute freedom in bequeathing property was ensured to any citizen who died childless. Arbitrary power of fathers over their children was restrained and arbitrary disinheritance forbidden. Any citizen who maintained neutrality in a sedition lost his civic status. The Areopagus was empowered to deal severely with luxury in food and dress. No woman might leave home with more than three changes of clothing, or with a basket of more than a cubit's length, and excessive wailing at funerals was forbidden. The laws, inscribed on wood, were placed in the Acropolis, whence they were removed to Salamis during the Persian wars.

The later years of Solon belong more to legend than to history. We are told that he left Athens for ten years, after binding the Athenians by oath to observe his laws till his return. His travels took him far afield. Cyprus, Asia Minor, and Egypt, probably the scenes of his early career, were revisited. Historical investigation may deny the possibility of a dialogue between Solon and Cræsus, but can not spoil the charm of a story which Herodotus has rendered immortal. The king, then at the height of his prosperity, was said to have asked him who was the happiest man in the world, expecting to hear himself

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 Sparta  
 and  
 Athens

Meanwhile in the Peloponnesus Sparta attained to a position of supremacy which subsequently enabled the Greeks to offer resistance to the Persians with some show of unity. Not only did the Laconians stand to Sparta somewhat in the same relation as Attica to Athens, but Sparta conquered the neighboring territory of Messenia in two desperate wars, and deprived Argos, hitherto the leading state in the peninsula, of the district between Parnon and the Sea, and of Cythera. Here, however, the Spartan career of conquest and annexation was arrested by the sturdy and successful resistance of the small city of Tegea, and henceforth Spartan policy was confederation, not annexation. The league of states which had followed Argos was broken up; several small states went over to Sparta. Elis had become bound by community of interest to Sparta in the Messenian wars, and Tegea and Arcadia having resisted annexation, submitted to the confederation. Thus in the Peloponnesus at least, Sparta was indeed the slayer of the Greeks, and outside the Peloponnesus, Athens promptly set the

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named. Solon first mentioned Tellos, an Athenian, who had died for his country at Eleusis. Nor could Croesus obtain the second mention in the ranks of the happy; that place was assigned to two Argive youths, Cleobis and Biton, to whom the gods had given to die in their sleep as the reward of an act of filial piety. The wrath of Croesus at the moment was unrestrained, but bitter experience taught him to appreciate the wisdom of Solon, and "to account a prosperous man happy only when he ended his life as he began it." Solon's meetings with Anacharsis and with Thales, one of the seven wise men like himself, were among the moral apologues of the ancients. The last years of Solon were passed at Athens, where the wild conflict of parties disturbed the application of the new constitution. He saw the failure of his plans with the deepest distress. His suspicion of his kinsman Pisistratus was justified by the issue. Again he entrusted his warnings to elegiac verse: "Fools, ye are treading in the footsteps of the fox; can ye not read the hidden meaning of these winning words?" The protest was in vain; Pisistratus seized the government. The opposition of Solon continued; undeterred he laid down his arms before his door, and called heaven to witness that he had stood by his country. Retiring into private life he died soon after the usurpation of Pisistratus, with the last injunction that his ashes should be scattered over the island of Salamis, the "lovely island" which had been the scene of his earliest exploit.

Solon died the subject of a despotic monarch. His labor might seem wasted, but its eclipse lasted only for a season, and even during the years of the tyranny of Pisistratus its influence was strong. Morally and politically a power among his countrymen, Solon saw that to imprison men in a relentless political machine like Lycurgus, or to humble a refined aristocracy beneath a paid proletariat like Pericles, were policies equally dangerous. His constitution was a graceful compromise between democracy and oligarchy. In poetry he represents a high Ionian type; as a traveler and a soldier his experience of men was large. In the higher realms of constructive statesmanship he rivals the greatest legislators not only of Greece but of the world.

example of acknowledging Sparta to be the proper leader of all Greeks against the Persians, but in 490 B. C. when Datis and Artaphernes, at the command of Darius, led the first Persian expedition against Greece, it was Athens alone that withstood them, and soon after won the glorious victory of Marathon, by the genius of Miltiades and the valor of her sons.

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For a time the danger of invasion was averted, but only for a time. If, however, Xerxes, the successor of Darius, availed himself of the interval for enormous preparations, Athens also, under the keen-sighted guidance of a great statesman, Themistocles, was also preparing the navy which was to deal the final, fatal blow at Xerxes. After the victory of Marathon, Miltiades was all-powerful at Athens. He asked the people to give him a fleet in order that he might strike another blow at Persia, while the effects of Marathon were fresh. His demand was granted. But he employed the fleet in the attempt to wreak a private grudge on the island of Paros. He was defeated and returned to Athens, where he was sentenced to a fine of several thousand dollars for having deceived the people, and being unable to pay it, he was disfranchised as a public debtor. He soon died, leaving debt and dishonor to his son Cimon. Aristides was now the most influential man at Athens as Themistocles was the ablest. The latter foresaw that the Persians would return, and he determined to resist them only on the sea. He aimed therefore at creating an Athenian navy. The Athenians set about fortifying the peninsula of Piræus, and at the same time Themistocles commenced to build the fleet, and in ten years Athens had acquired two hundred triremes. Aristides was at the head of a party which viewed this movement with alarm, for they feared lest Greece should follow Miletus, Chios, and Samos. The strife of parties came to an issue and Aristides was banished. Themistocles remained the leader of Athens in the new path which he himself had opened, and Athens became the first maritime power of Greece.

**Aristides  
 Opposes  
 Themis-  
 tocles,  
 and is  
 Banished**

Darius on the other hand determined upon the complete subjugation of Greece, but when vast preparations had been in progress for three years, he died, leaving the throne to Xerxes (485 B. C.). Xerxes was not, like his father, a born ruler or a trained warrior, but he was perfectly convinced that all human beings were the natural slaves of the Persian king. He was easily

**Xerxes'  
 Great  
 Army**

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persuaded by the members of his court and by Demaritus, the exiled king of Sparta, to make an invasion of Greece. Orders were given to raise such an armament as the world had never seen — a host which should display the whole resources of the empire from the Indus to the Ægean, from the Danube to the Nile. A fleet of 1,200 triremes and about 3,000 transports and smaller craft assembled on the Ionian coast. In the spring of 480 B. C. Xerxes led about a million men to the Hellespont, whither the fleet went before to meet them.

Greeks  
 Defeat  
 Persians  
 at  
 Salamis

The Greeks' first line of defense, the Pass of Tempe, was given up because it could be turned; the second, Thermopylæ and Artemisia, was turned, and the foremost band of Spartans was sacrificed by hesitation and procrastination to the Spartan government. Then the Persians ravaged Attica. They had fled to the neighboring island of Salamis, and there under Themistocles they defeated the Persian fleet, and sent the Persian monarch home in flight (480 B. C.). The Spartans then decided to join the Athenians in attacking the Persian commander Mardonius, who had been left behind in Greece with a large force. Pausanias led 110,000 of the allies into Bœotia, and utterly defeated the army of Mardonius near Plataea the following year. On the same day the troops of Greece fled to defeat, those of Persia won in a battle on the shore of Mycale, near Miletus. This victory set Ionia free from Persia.

Internal  
 Strife

Thus the Persian wars came to an end, but the seeds of a far more fatal struggle, because internecine, were sown. The Persian wars had revealed both the weakness and the strength of Greece. The hereditary aristocracy of Thessaly had shown that they were eager to establish a supremacy of their house, with the help of Asiatic despotism, and such states as Argos and Thebes had not been free from jealousy and party spirit, as was shown by their betraying the common cause. Even Sparta and the Peloponnesian allies had been disposed to confine their efforts to the defense of their own peninsula, thus leaving Athens and the northern cities to their fate. On the other hand, the struggle had brought into strong relief the contrast between absolute monarchy and constitutional freedom. This appeared both in Greek strategy and in the fighting of the Greek troops. But the great result was the cause for the struggle between Athens and Sparta.

The position of undisputed leadership which Sparta had enjoyed



at the beginning of the Persian wars, she had lost before the end of them. For this the main reason must be admitted to be that Sparta acted with disgraceful selfishness, the Athenians with glorious self-sacrifice throughout. When, therefore, the Greeks of the island formed a league, the Confederation of Delos, for defense against the Persians, it is not surprising that the foremost place in it was accorded to Athens. In the course of time, many members of the league preferred to pay monetary contributions rather than to supply ships and men. Athens, on the contrary, was ever eager to provide both men and ships. Thus Athens came to have the power of the sword and, therefore, of the purse in the Confederation, which now was practically constituted, not of allies but of subjects. Not content with the command of the sea, Athens, by a series of victories, and under the guidance of Pericles, attained a position of commanding influence in continental Greece, which, however, only endured from 456 to 445 B. C. Notwithstanding the loss of influence occasioned to Athens by her defeat at Corona (447 B. C.), and in spite of the Thirty Years' Truce, concluded in 445 between Athens and Sparta, in 432 the two states, making the quarrel between Corinth and Cocyra their pretext, began their great duel, the Peloponnesian war. Sparta was by its constitution a predatory, Athens an industrial state; the Spartans were farmers, the Athenians merchants; Sparta's strength was on land, Athens' on sea. Sparta prided herself on the ignorance of her sons; Athens on being herself the instructress of Greece. Sparta represented and received the support of the oligarchy; Athens the democracy. For twenty-seven years, as the oracles prophesied, the war lasted. Its fortunes were varied and tragic. For the first ten years Sparta had gained nothing, and Athens had lost nothing except Amphipolis. The Spartan allies, especially those of Corinth and Thebes, were discontented, and Athens, in spite of all her mistakes, remained on the whole triumphant.

The second period of war lasted for eight years, the main feature being the Athenian expedition to Sicily, which ended in a crushing disaster, and this was the turning point of the war. Pericles had warned the Athenians against needless adventures and the policy of aggrandizement. In attempting to conquer Sicily they had indeed incurred a needless risk of tremendous magnitude and had lost.

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**Sparta  
Loses  
Prestige**

**Athens  
Wins  
Glory**

**The  
Pelopon-  
nesian  
War**

**Second  
Period of  
War**

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The  
Third  
Period, or  
"Ionian  
War"

The third and last period of the war was from the Sicilian defeat in 413 to the taking of Athens by Lysander in 404, a few months after the battle of Argospotami. As the seaboard of Asia Minor was the scene of much fighting, this period is sometimes called the Ionian war. In this last period the war takes a new character. After the Sicilian overthrow, Athens was really doomed. The Decelean war is a prolonged agony of Athenian despair. Athens had now no hope but in her ships, and the leaders had to find their



FRONT OF PARTHENON

Sparta  
Victo-  
rious

own supplies. The Spartan treasury was also empty, and here Persia came to the rescue of Sparta.

Persian  
Money  
for  
Sparta

This need of money on both sides gave the mastery of the situation to Persia, and it was due to the factious persuasion of Alcibiades that the aid of Persia was given to Sparta. Athens was ultimately conquered, not by Spartan confederation, but by the disloyalty of Athenians, bent on ruining political opponents. Even when Lysander was before Athens, it was the baneful influence of Athenian faction that turned the scale. When Athens had been taken, and the walls destroyed, Sparta was once more the first power in Greece. When the patriotic exiles had overthrown the

rule of the Thirty Tyrants, they restored the Athenian democracy, but could not restore the old Athenian power. Thus we find that there were three great influences which brought about the defeat of Athens: first, was the early death of her greatest statesman and guiding force, Pericles; second, her tragic attempt to conquer Sicily; third, the Persian gold, which Sparta accepted and used.

Thus the supremacy of Sparta was established in 404 B. C., but it was no sooner established than recovery set in against it. Sparta had proclaimed in a war just closed that her policy was to restore to the Greeks the freedom which Attica had robbed them of. Sparta broke up the confederacy of Dallas, but she did not give freedom to Athens' late sub-allies. She merely displaced democratic by oligarchic government, and placed in each town a Spartan governor, whose excesses and violence made Sparta loathed. At the same time it was not to the interest of the Persian kingdom to allow Athens to be entirely crushed or any single city to have preponderating power in Greece, thus an anti-Spartan coalition was formed, and in spite of an agreement made in 387, the terms of which were designed to prevent the formation of any such confederation as that of Delos. In 378 Athens was enabled to form a new confederation, and to carry on hostilities with Sparta.

These hostilities were not decisive, but they allowed Thebes to unite Bœotia into a single state, and by the genius of her leaders so to consolidate its power as to defeat Sparta at Leuctra in 370, and establish a Theban supremacy. Sparta was obliged to withdraw her governors from all cities, and everywhere the democrats in consequence came into power. Arcadia was made into one state, and Messenia was made independent of Sparta. But Thebes was wholly unequal to the position which she aspired to occupy. Athens united with Sparta in resisting her, a great anti-Theban coalition was formed, and when the two great Theban leaders, Pelopides and Epamonondus, fell respectively at Cynoscephalæ in 363, and at Mantinea in 362, Thebes lost the only two men of genius she possessed, and with them all hope of maintaining the position she had attained. In spite of all these disturbances, poets flourished, artists and statesmen continued to rise, manners and customs were carried to the highest degree of refinement; but that unhappy period had now arrived when the Greeks ceased to be free, and ceased to advance in civilization.

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Causes of  
Athens'  
Over-  
throwTheban  
Suprem-  
acy Es-  
tablished

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King  
Philip of  
MacedonAthens  
Opposes  
Philip too  
Late

Meanwhile in Macedonia, whose inhabitants, if not of Greek blood, were not distantly akin to the Greeks, a kingdom was forming which was destined to impose on Greece from without the only unity it was capable of receiving. This kingdom had been formed by conquest, and had grown up under Philip, who united courage with cunning. The dissensions which prevailed among the different Greek states, afforded him opportunity to execute his malicious plans, and the battle of Chæronea in 338 B. C. gave Macedonia the command of all Greece. The steps by which Philip of Macedonia had made himself master of Greece were well marked and rapid. The first people to be absorbed by the expansion of Macedonia were the Greek colonies on the coasts of Thrace and Macedonia; in 357 Amphipolis and Pydna; in 353 Halvonesus, Abbera, Maroneia, and Methone; and in 348 the fall of Olinthus and its thirty-two confederate towns, gave the whole coast as far as the Hellespont into the hands of Philip. The next step to take was the gaining a foothold in the internal affairs of Greece, and this he succeeded in getting, as far as northern Greece was concerned, in the Sacred war in 355. Thebes, having in vain endeavored to impose its supremacy on Phocis, abused its influence on the Amphyctyonic council by declaring a Sacred war against the Phocians. The latter found assistance at the hands of Pheræ in Thessaly; and the Aris of Thessaly consequently placed themselves under the protection of Macedonia. Meanwhile even Attica had at last given ear to Demosthenes' denunciations of Philip, and opened her eyes to the danger which threatened her, when her own colonies were captured by Philip, and war had been declared, though not immediately waged against Philip by Attica. But the Sacred war ended in 346 in the destruction of the Phocians; and Athens, after it was too late, after having ruined herself by procrastination, concluded a peace with Philip, which redeemed all his gains and retained all her losses. As yet Philip had found no excuse for interfering with the affairs of Peloponnesus, but this was afforded him in 344 by an ill-timed revival of Sparta's pretensions, which drove Messene, Argos, and Megalapolis into the arms of Philip in spite of Demosthenes. In 340 Athens formed extended alliances, and felt strong enough openly to declare war against Philip. In the following year she saved Byzantium from his attacks, and in 338 she at length, all too late, consented to Demos-

thenes' proposal to confer all moneys heretofore devoted to public amusements to military purposes, but the fatal field of Chæronea was followed by the peace of Demosthenes. Philip was acknowledged master of Greece, and elected general of the Hellenic forces against Persia, but before he could start, he was murdered (336 B. C.).

A general rising against the Macedonian power was promptly stopped by Philip's son and successor, the world-famous Alexander. His first act was to suppress the attempted revolt by utterly destroying Thebes. In 334 he commenced his invasion of Persia.

When he succeeded Philip, Alexander was but twenty years old. He marched into Greece, suppressed an insurrection, and was recognized by the new Assembly at Corinth as commander-in-chief of the Greek armies. He marched against the tribes of the northern border of Macedonia, and while he was absent on this expedition, the Thebans rose against the Macedonian garrison. Alexander returned, took Thebes, and utterly destroyed it in 335 B. C. At Corinth he received the homage of the Greek states, and then returned to Macedonia.

He was now free to execute the designs of Philip. As captain-general of Hellas, he set forth to invade the Persian empire, and to avenge the wrongs suffered by the Greeks at the hands of the first Darius and Xerxes. His career of conquest had three stages, marked by his three great battles. The victory of Granicus, 334 B. C., gave him Asia Minor; the victory at Issus in the following year opened his path into Syria and Egypt; the victory at Arbela, 331 B. C., made him temporary master of the whole East.

In the last battle he overthrew the Persian empire. In 326 he crossed the Indus, but his troops refused to follow him farther. He then sailed down that river to the Indian Ocean, and thence marched to Babylonia. While preparing to invade Arabia, he fell ill and died, 323 B. C. Alexander not merely conquered Asia Minor, but he planted Greek colonies, and these centers of culture discharged functions of the highest importance in the history of the world. They gave to Greek culture, Greek literature, thought, and art, even to the Greek language itself, a career independent of and unaffected by the fate or decay of Hellas itself. They made Greek the language of the civilized world, though it is true, it was not pure Attic, but the common dialect; yet Hellenistic Greek is the language of the New Testament.

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Alex-  
anderInvasion  
of Persia

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Effects of  
Alexander's  
Con-  
quests

Asia Minor remained Greek until the Turks came in the eleventh century. Syria and Egypt were not indeed Hellenized as whole states, but their capital cities, Antioch and Alexandria, were Greek, and the control established by Alexander was retained by Macedonia and by Rome for centuries. The colonies planted by Alexander in his progress through Asia mark the beginning of a new period in Hellenic history. The results of Alexander's conquests were beneficial chiefly in two ways. First, by liberating the hoarded treasures of the Eastern kingdoms, and so stimulating industry and commerce. Second, by opening Asia to a new civilization which helped to promote the intellectual and moral progress in those places where its influence was limited or transient. From the colonies which Alexander established, the Mohammedans later made their acquaintance with Greek learning, so that in the time of darkness, when the very tradition of Greek learning had perished from out of western Europe, the Mohammedans were busy annotating Aristotle, even in Timbuctu.

The death of Alexander was the signal for a fresh struggle for independence; but this the Lamian war ended with the battle of Crannon, 332 B. C., in the victory of the Macedonian general Antipator and the extinction of political liberty in Greece. In the struggles between the Diadochi for empire, Greece was the battlefield. Even when the various generals had made themselves monarchs of the kingdoms into which Alexander's empire split, and Greece was left unappropriated, the efforts of a statesman to obtain a position of independence for Athens by playing off one monarch against another were fruitless. All that lends interest to the next period, that of the Epigoni, is that a new form of political federation was tried, and with some success, by the Ætolian and Achæan leagues. But the centrifugal tendency in Greek politics was manifest in Sparta's refusal to join the latter league, which thereupon invoked the invasion of Macedonia, and was successful.

But this friendship was soon fatal; for it involved the Greeks in a contest between Philip and the Romans, and at first restored freedom to the Grecian states, while they changed the Ætolian and soon after Macedonia into Roman provinces, and they afterwards began to excite dissensions in the Achæan league, interfered in the quarrels of the Greeks, and finally compelled them to take up arms to maintain their freedom. So unequal a contest could not long

Romans  
Conquer  
Greece  
146 B. C.

remain undecided. The capture of Corinth, 146 B. C., placed the Greeks in the power of the Romans.

During the whole period which elapsed between the battle of Chæronea and the destruction of Corinth by the Romans, the arts and sciences flourished among the Greeks; indeed, the golden age of the arts was in the time of Alexander. The Grecian colonies were yet in a more flourishing condition than the mother country; especially Alexandria, in Egypt, which became the seat of learning. As they, also, in the process of time fell under the dominion of the Romans, they became, like their mother country, the instructors of their conquerors. In the time of Augustus the Greeks lost even the shadow of their former freedom, and ceased to be an independent people, although their language, manners, customs, learning, arts, and tastes spread over the whole Roman empire. The character of the nation was now sunk so low that the Romans esteemed a Greek as the most worthless of creatures. Asiatic luxury had wholly corrupted them; their ancient love of freedom and independence was extinguished; and a mean servility was substituted in its place. At the beginning of the fourth century the mother country showed scarcely a trace of the noble characteristics of the ancient Greeks, and the barbarians found the country an easy prey for their ruinous incursions.

The principal traits in the character of the ancient Greeks were simplicity and grandeur. The Greek was his own instructor, and if he learned anything from others, he did it with a freedom and independence. Nature was his great model, and in his native land she displayed herself in all her charms. The uncivilized Greek was manly and proud, active and enterprising, violent both in his love and in his hate. He esteemed and exercised hospitality toward strangers and countrymen. These features of Grecian character had an important influence on the religion, politics, manners, and philosophy of the nation. The gods of the Greeks were not like those of Asia, surrounded by a holy obscurity. They were human in their faults and virtues, but were placed far above mortals. They kept up an intercourse with man; good and evil came from their hands; all physical and moral endowments were their gifts.

The period of somewhat less than two centuries which had intervened between the death of Alexander and the conquest of Greece

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Advance-  
 ment in  
 Culture

Greek  
 Traits

Greek  
 Gods

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Romans  
 Influ-  
 enced  
 Largely  
 by Greek  
 Life and  
 Learning

Roman  
 Rule  
 Grows  
 Oppress-  
 ive

by the Romans was a sort of twilight between liberty and subjection. From the time of the Roman conquest the existence of Greece was merged in that of a greater political unity, so that for the next four centuries until the commencement of the barbarian inroads, it can hardly be said to have a history of its own. But it can not be supposed that on this account the Greeks occupied exactly the same position as the rest of the Roman provincials. The Romans, in fact, treated them as inferior beings, and did not at first regard them as absolute proprietors of the lands they cultivated; nevertheless, there the Romans ever met with a civilization more advanced than their own, which they had already learned to respect, and an elaborate system of civil government and social usages which could not be set aside without undermining the whole fabric, hence the Greeks, while subjected to Roman administration, were allowed to retain the greater part of their institutions, together with their property and private rights, and through their superiority to the other conquered peoples, remained the dominant power in the East. Even in Asia the despotism of Rome was much modified by the municipal system of the Greek colonies, and by the influence of Greek culture. Thus it came to pass that while the Western nations were assimilated to Rome, in the East Roman empires became Greek, though the Greek nations in name became Roman. It was a part of the Roman policy in dealing with conquered countries, to treat them at first with mildness until they became inured to the yoke, and when this was the case, and precautionary measures had been adopted to prevent the possibility of a successful revolt, to deal with them more harshly, and increase their burdens. This was what happened in the case of Greece. For some time the people at large had no reason to regret the change. In fact, several cities, such as Athens and Sparta, were allowed to rank as allied cities. But Roman greed and desire for greatness of power soon increased with respect to the Greeks, and within a century the Roman rule became very oppressive. The direct weight of the burden was further increased by the exemption enjoyed by Roman citizens in the provinces, and by privileges and monopolies which were granted to merchants and manufacturers. The periods during which the greatest injury was inflicted on the Greeks was that of the Mithridatic war, B. C. 86.

At the beginning of that struggle many of the cities declared in



favor of Mithridates, thinking that under his auspices they might regain their freedom. But the Roman general, Sulla, soon appeared with an army, and they laid down their arms, with the exception of Athens, which was only reduced after an obstinate defense. A number of cities were plundered, and an immense amount of property was ruined throughout the country.

With the accession of Augustus a brighter era seemed to have dawned, and under the early emperors, who desired to strengthen themselves against the senate, the interests of the provincials were more considered.

But the old evils to a great extent remained, and the first of the Romans to perceive the dangers arising from them was the emperor Hadrian, who had the merit of personally visiting the provinces, and whose tastes naturally led him to sympathize with the Greeks. He lightened the taxes, and raised the Greeks to the rights of Roman citizenship, thereby anticipating the edict of Caracalla, by which that privilege was extended to all the other inhabitants of the empire, 212 A. D. The depopulation of Greece, however, continued, and while in this way the power of the nation was being weakened, and its material resources diminished by the loss of much of the capital that had been invested in the improvement of the country, the actual condition of the inhabitants was for a time improved, because the decrease in their numbers had been more rapid than the destruction of property. Possessing the necessaries of life in abundance, and having but little money to spend on anything beyond, they sank into that condition of indifference and ease in which at last the barbarian nations found them.

The first invasion was made by the Goths, who were the earliest barbarians to break through the Roman frontier, and the defeat and death of the emperor Decius, at Mœsia, A. D. 251, and the subsequent incursions of the Goths into Thrace and Macedonia warned the Greeks of the peril that impended over them. Meanwhile the walls of Athens were repaired, the fortifications across the isthmus of Corinth were restored, and vigorous preparations made for defense. The invaders soon made their appearance both by land and sea, and one division succeeded in carrying Athens by storm. Shortly after, however, a sufficient force was collected to compel them to retire. This reverse was the prelude to their total overthrow; for aid was meanwhile arriving from Italy, by which

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Greece  
 Weakened by  
 Depopulation

Barbarian  
 Invasion.  
 Goths

Defense

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AND  
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their separate bands were attacked in detail and destroyed. Some years later, after other inroads, during which many cities of Greece successfully defended themselves, the power of the Goths was broken by the emperor Claudius II, at the great battle of Naisus, A. D. 269. Thus it was clearly seen that the spirit of the Greeks was not extinct, and if they had been unwarlike since the siege of Athens by Sulla, it was mainly because their masters had denied them the use of arms.

Chris-  
tianity  
Regen-  
erated  
Greeks

Another and far more important influence which regenerated the Greeks at this time was Christianity. This religion now began to produce a marked impression on Greek society. Its power was the greater because it had worked from below upward, and had permeated to a great extent the lower and middle classes. It improved the moral condition of the Greeks; it renovated their social condition, and did much to unify them in spirit. Such an influence, which not merely pervaded every relation of life, but penetrated also to the motives and springs of action, is sufficient of itself to account for the regeneration of the Greeks, which is traced in its effects at the end of the third century.

The scene now changes, and from the land of Hellas, the seat of action is transferred to the city of Constantinople.

Constan-  
tine Con-  
verted

In 330 A. D., Constantine was converted to Christianity, and founded a "New Rome" at Constantinople. From this time on the history of Greece is merged in the history of the Byzantine empire, which was finally established in 395 A. D., when the Roman emperor, Theodosius the Great, at his death divided the empire between his two sons, Arcadius and Honorius. The empire had previously for a time been divided into east and west, but the division then made by Theodosius was final. Arcadius, a weak and luxurious character, was made emperor of the eastern division, which was formerly included in the prefectures of the East and Illyrium, namely, Syria, Asia Minor, and Pontus, stretching along the shores of the Black Sea in Asia; of Egypt in Africa, and Thrace, Mœsia (now Bulgaria), Macedonia, Greece, and Crete in Europe. The empire thus formed lasted more than a thousand years, and underwent a great variety of fortune. It took the name of Byzantine empire from Byzantium, the ancient name of its capital, which after 330 was called Constantinople, or New Rome.

Byzan-  
tine  
Empire  
Founded

In the interval between the first Gothic invasions and the acces-

sion of Constantine, the material prosperity of Greece had increased, owing partly to devastation of the provinces north of that country, the wealthy inhabitants of which were forced to take refuge in Greece, and partly to the insecurity of the Red Sea, Egypt, and Syria, which caused the commerce of Central Asia to take the route of the Black Sea, hence the trade of the Mediterranean passed once more into the hands of the Greeks. The period of 120 years between the death of Arcadius and the accession of Justinian, was a time of improvement. During the long reign of Theodosius II, the power was in the hands of his sister, the philanthropic Pulcheria, and of his ministers, who seemed to have ruled judiciously. The five succeeding emperors were all men born in the middle or lower class of society, of provincial origin, and came to the throne at a mature age. Their policy was to lighten the burdens of the people.

Far different was the case with Justinian, whose severe demands for money distressed all classes of his subjects. He closed the schools, and confiscated the revenues. At the same time the Olympian games were brought to an end, and from the time of his accession, the inhabitants of Hellas are but little heard of; and at the beginning of the eighth century, they are spoken of by Byzantine writers under the contemptuous title of Helladici, while the conquered nation is represented by the population of Constantinople and Asia Minor. Yet this period was not wholly disadvantageous to Greece. As the danger from the invading barbarians increased, its citizens regained the power of using arms, and revived a municipal administration to direct their efforts.

At the commencement of the eighth century, the extinction of the Byzantine empire appeared to be imminent. The same causes which had overthrown the Western empire were threatening it with destruction. The Saracens had overrun all its Asiatic possessions, and had attacked the capital itself, while in Europe it was threatened by the Bulgarians. The provinces were falling off: Syria, Egypt, Africa, and the Greek provinces of Spain were wholly lost, and in Italy, the domains were greatly circumscribed by the Lombards. At home rebellion prevailed in the army, and anarchy in the government. Six emperors had been dethroned in the space of twenty-one years. It seemed as if the Greek race itself would be destroyed, and Hellas was threatened with invasion

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Greeks  
Secure  
Com-  
merceJustinian  
as  
EmperorSaracens  
Appear  
upon  
Euro-  
pean Soil

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by the barbarians. But just at this time the helm of state was seized by a man, who by his force of character and great abilities inaugurated a new lease of life. This man was Leo III, the Isaurian.

The period from the end of the ninth century to the fourth crusade was to Greece a time of prosperity, though its inhabitants were looked down upon as provincials by the people of Constantinople, and the country itself was treated with neglect, yet in material well-being it was one of the most flourishing parts of the empire. Though barbarian inroads were still not wholly unknown, yet security generally prevailed, and from the middle of the eleventh century, the coasts had nothing to fear from Saracen corsairs. The land produced corn in abundance, so that it even supplied the capital in a time of dearth, but in the latter half of the twelfth century, decline was ready to set in; their commerce was passing into the hands of the Western traders.

The empire of the East never recovered fully from the effects of the fourth crusade. It was then broken into a number of separate fragments, and though some of these regained their cohesion, and the end did not arrive for two centuries and a half, yet the great strength of the system was gone, and a paralysis crept more and more over the enfeebled frame. The headquarters of the legitimate Greek monarchy was at Nicæa, the original capital of the Seljuk sultans in Asia Minor. This government was maintained in opposition to the crusaders, the Seljuks of Iconium, and the Greeks of Trebizond for nearly sixty years, when the difficulties of Constantinople began increasing greatly, and their downfall appeared imminent. It was for a time a question whether that city should become the prize of the empire of Nicæa or of the empire of Thessalonica, or of the Bulgaro-Wallachian sovereign, and this rivalry involved many alliances and wars. It was ultimately decided in favor of Nicæa by Michael Palæologous, who became the founder of the last dynasty that ruled the Greek empire (1261). But it did not remain long unmolested, for the Turks, then rising into notice, aimed at obtaining power in Europe, and Amurath II deprived the Greeks of all their cities and castles on the Uxine Sea and along the coasts of Thrace, Macedonia, and Thessaly, carrying his victorious arms, in short, into the midst of the Peloponnesus. The Grecian emperors acknowledged him as

Turks  
 Gain  
 Much  
 Territory

their superior lord, and he in turn afforded them protection. This conquest, however, was not effected without a brief resistance.

When Mohammed II in 1451 ascended the Ottoman throne, the fate of the Greek empire seemed to be decided. At the head of an army of 30,000 men, supported by a fleet of three hundred sail, he laid siege to Constantinople, and encouraged his troops by spreading reports of prophecies and prodigies that portended the triumph of Islamism. Constantine, the last of the Eastern emperors met the storm with becoming resolution, and maintained the city for fifty-three days, though the fanaticism and fury of the besiegers were roused to the highest pitch. At length, May 29, 1453, the Turks surmounted the walls, and the brave Constantine perished at the head of his faithful troops. The final conquest of Greece did not, however, take place until 1481. Cyprus and Crete each had been in the possession of the Venetians, and the other Greek islands gradually passed into the hands of the Turks, Crete coming into their power in 1669.

Twenty years later the Venetians began a war in the hope of regaining their Greek possessions, and succeeded in winning back the Peloponnesus, only to lose it again in 1715. The treaty of Passarovitz in 1718 confirmed the Turks in their conquest. Under Turkish rule, the Greeks were allowed to become comparatively wealthy, as in the Turkish empire, the vocation of the subject races is to provide for the sustenance of the ruling Turks. With wealth came the spread of education and a revived consciousness in the Greeks of what mighty dead they were the descendants.

At the time of the expedition of the French into Egypt, the Greeks, strongly excited by the events of the war which was thus approaching them, waited for them as liberators, with the firm resolution of going to meet them and regaining their liberty, but again their hopes were disappointed, and the succor they expected from France was removed to a distance. Having waited in vain in the midst of the great events which in several respects have changed the whole face of Europe within the past one hundred years, the Greeks, taking counsel only of their despair and indignation at living always as Helots on the ruins of Sparta and of Athens, when nations but of yesterday were regaining their rights, recognizing their social relations, rose against their despotic and cruel masters, perhaps with greater boldness than prudence.

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**Constantinople  
Besieged  
and  
Taken  
1453**

**Greeks  
Rise  
Against  
the  
Turks**

## DIVISION III

## EUROPE

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## GREECE

The first decided movement took place in the year 1800, when the Servians, provoked by the cruelty of their oppressors, the Turks, made a general insurrection, which was headed by their famous General Czerni George, who had been sergeant in the Austrian service, and afterward became a bandit chief. He was possessed of much integrity of character and bravery, and under him the Servians obtained several victories. He blockaded Belgrade, and when all the coast had been surrendered to him, he made his entry into the city and slaughtered all the Turks that were found in it.

Greek  
National  
Feeling  
AssertedLiberty  
Regained

The great bond of sympathy which had attached the various Greeks during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was their religion, but a new inspiration came with the advance of culture, in the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth century; they began to be animated by the feeling of nationality. The French revolution roused their minds into activity, and the people prepared for a general uprising. A secret society was formed to make ready for a rising of the people, and the agents of Russia, who was the great enemy of the Turk on the north, were everywhere. Accordingly in 1821 the war for independence broke out. In less than a year the Turks were turned out, and Greek liberty regained, but civil war ensued. Nor was this unnatural. The leaders of the revolution were men who had acquired what capacity they had for leading in the service of the Turks, and had acquired it therefore in a bad school. The cold suspicion with which the struggle for liberty had at first been watched by Europe was eventually exchanged for warm sympathy and pity, owing to the horrible cruelties perpetrated by the Turks, so that when in 1824, the latter by the aid of the troops from Egypt succeeded in regaining possession of Greece, there were not wanting volunteers from England and elsewhere to lead a fight among the Greek forces.

Otho of  
Bavaria  
Made  
King of  
Greece

In 1827 the Turkish fleet was destroyed at Navarino, by the fleets of England, France, and Russia, by French aid the Turks were driven out of Greece, and in 1828 the Greeks had once more recovered their liberty. In 1832 Otho of Bavaria was made king. He had been brought up in a despotic court, and knew no other method of ruling. He brought to Greece with him Bavarians, to whom he entrusted the entire power. The Greeks felt that though their kingdom was independent, no Greek had a chance of being

elevated to any ministerial office of importance. Accordingly, revolution broke out in 1843, the Bavarians were dismissed, and Otho agreed to rule through responsible ministers and the repre-

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KING GEORGE I OF GREECE

sentative assembly, but he failed to fulfil his promise. The discontent reached its height in 1862, when another revolution broke out, and Otho had to leave Greece. The great mass of the people longed for a constitutional monarchy, and gave striking proof of this by electing Prince Alfred, of England, king of Greece. This

Greeks  
Revolt  
Against  
Otho

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choice meant simply that the Greek people were tired of institutional princes, and hoped that they would end their troubles when they had a prince accustomed to see peremptory government respected and enforced. The three protecting powers, England, France, and Russia, however, had bound themselves to allow no one related to their own ruling families to become king of Greece. When the Greek people received this news, they asked England to appoint a king to take the place of Prince Alfred, and after several refusals England found one in Prince William, of Schleswig-Holstein, son of the king of Denmark.

Prince  
 William  
 Became  
 George I

The Greek people accepted him, and in 1863 he became king, with the name of George I. The Ionian Islands were added to his kingdom. In 1865 the ministry gave great offense to the Greek people by its unconstitutional procedure, but the king persisted in standing by it. The people, however, persevered in the use of legitimate means to oust the ministry, and the king at last yielded, thus preventing revolution.

The effort of the Greeks to extend their boundaries is the last phase of their history. In 1853, when the Crimean war broke out, the Greeks sided with the Russians, and in the following year they made inroads into Thessaly and Epirus, but English and French troops landed at Piræus, and forcibly put an end to the Russian alliance and to Greek ideas of acquiring additional territory. From 1866 to 1869, the Crétans struggled bravely, but unsuccessfully, to throw off the Turkish yoke, and become a part of the Greek kingdom. In this revolution Greece materially assisted her fellow Christians with blockade runners, and by giving refuge to more than 30,000 fugitives of Moslem cruelty, and in consequence narrowly averted war with Turkey. The congress of Berlin in 1878 recommended the addition to Greece of southern Thessaly and Albania. Turkey refused, and war seemed imminent, but was averted by the concessions of Greece of nearly all Thessaly and part of Epirus.

Riots in  
 Athens

The embarrassed finances and the consequent dissatisfaction led to frequent changes in the ministry, and various experiments, which have kept the country in a very unstable condition. In January, 1895, the proposition to abolish certain revenue taxes, increasing the house tax and laying a tax upon trades and professions, led to serious riots in Athens, which were quelled only by the



skill of Prince George, a popular favorite. The ministry resigned, and was succeeded by another. In the spring of 1896 a most interesting revival of the Olympian games in the form of an athletic tournament took place at Athens.

In January, 1897, Greece attracted the attention of the civilized world by her championship of the cause of the Christians in Crete, who had again revolted against Turkish rule, and sought annexation to Greece. The Moslems of the island adhered to Turkey, and the contest, although political in appearance, was in fact a renewal of the struggle between Islam and Christianity. Greece at once supported the Cretan revolutionists, and an open conflict with Turkey seemed imminent, when the Powers took up the question, and despatched war-ships to the island to prevent any open outbreak. Greece desired to incorporate Crete with the Greek kingdom, with which the people of the island, by a large majority, were in active sympathy. On the 7th of February, 1897, the insurgent Christians of Halepa formally proclaimed union with Greece, and a few days later a fleet of torpedo-boats under command of Prince George of Greece, was sent to Crete. The Greek reserves were also called out and despatched to Crete. The Sultan of Turkey made a protest to the Powers against the action of the Greeks, and threatened to begin active warfare in Thessaly. The Powers decided to put a stop to the invasion by Greece, and sent four hundred men from the Russian, British, French, and Italian fleets to Canea in Crete. Greece was informed by the Powers that, unless she desisted in her efforts in Crete, the port of Athens would be blockaded. The warning was unheeded. On the 21st of February, the insurgent Christians of Crete made an attack upon the Turkish forces near Canea, and they would have succeeded had not three British war vessels, with others in the harbor, opened fire upon them, forcing the Cretans to give up the fight. Affairs were daily growing worse, and the whole island was in a state of siege, and the people were suffering for food.

Early in March the Powers sent the following note to both Greece and Turkey:—

“The Powers have come to an agreement on the two following points:—

“1. Crete can not in any case, under present circumstances, be annexed to Greece.

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Cretan  
WarThe  
Powers  
Take a  
Hand

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“2. In view of the delays caused by Turkey in the application of the reforms agreed upon in connection with the Ottoman government, the Powers are resolved, while maintaining the integrity of the Ottoman empire, to confer upon Crete an absolutely effective autonomous régime, intended to assure the island a separate government under the high suzerainty of the sultan.”

Greeks  
In-  
structed  
to Leave  
Crete.  
Order  
Refused

The note also directed the Greeks to withdraw their forces from Crete. They were allowed six days in which to do this. The Greeks refused to obey the Powers, and made a reply setting forth the claims of Greece. The Powers at once tried to formulate plans for blockading Piræus and Crete, but could not agree upon a plan. Fighting between the Greeks and Turks continued, and battles were fought at Malaxa, March 25, on the same date at Halepa, and March 30 and 31 at Fort Izzedin, in most of which the soldiers of the Powers took part against the Christian Cretans. In the meantime active preparations for war were going on in both Greece and Turkey. The Greek reserves were called out in March, and appeals were sent to the Greeks in the United States to return home and join the army. Toward the end of March a Greek force of about 80,000 men had assembled on the frontiers of Thessaly, and Crown Prince Constantine left Athens to assume command. The army was formed into two divisions, having bases of supplies at Larissa and Trikhala. The Porte was equally active, and troops were hurried toward the Thessalian border, the headquarters of the army being established at Monastir. Edhem Pasha was in command of the Turkish forces, which numbered about 150,000 men, thoroughly equipped and armed. Turkey declared war on the 16th of April, and the struggle opened at once. Both nations had their armies facing each other on the Thessalian frontier. On April 17 began the first severe contest to gain the possession of a pass in the Olympian mountains near Tyrnavo, which was the gateway to the plain of Thessaly. The fighting lasted for three days, each side claiming the victory. The Turks captured every place except the ridge commanding Tyrnavo, and a few days later that place fell into their hands, with large quantities of supplies and ammunition. The Greek headquarters were located at Larissa, a place about ten or twelve miles south of Tyrnavo. The Turks attempted this place next, but were repulsed with loss. A few days later, however, they captured Tyrnavo,

Turks  
Win on  
Land

and on the 25th of April the Greeks retreated from Larissa, abandoning war materials, supplies, and guns.

The naval efforts of the Greeks were more successful. Prevesa was bombarded, Epirus was captured, and the squadron in the Gulf of Salonica captured a large quantity of Turkish stores. April 27 the Greeks advanced toward Janina, reported large captures of war materials and supplies, but the Turks assumed the offensive, and the advance was checked.

At the end of April and the beginning of May, the center of hostilities was about Valestino. On the 30th of April, a bloody battle was fought, when a Turkish attack by 14,000 troops upon General Smolenski, with 12,000, was repulsed with heavy Turkish losses. On May 2nd, the Turks made another assault on the Greek position, but failed. May 5th, a force of 50,000 Turks made an attack upon 23,000 Greeks at Pharsalos, and the latter were forced to retreat. The position was now such as to satisfy the Greeks that the Turks had enough men to cut the Greek line between Bolo and Pharsalos, outflank the Greek army, and force it to surrender. May 5th, the Greeks evacuated Pharsalos, and retired some thirteen miles south. Bolo had been practically abandoned on the 30th of April.

The Greeks were convinced that it was hopeless for them to continue the struggle, and on the 8th of May, the government informed the Powers that the Greek army would be recalled from Crete. The Powers requested an armistice from the Porte, but he declined an armistice until the following principal conditions were accepted: Annexation of Thessaly; an indemnity of \$43,936,000; abolition of the treaties conferring privileges on Greeks in the Ottoman empire; and a treaty of extradition with Greece. The Porte was induced to withdraw his conditions, and an armistice for seventeen days was agreed upon May 20. The preliminary treaty was signed September 18, 1897, which was amplified and made the regular peace treaty and signed by the Turkish and Greek plenipotentiaries at Constantinople, December 4. It was ratified December 16 by the sultan, and by King George of Greece, near the end of December.

Thus the war which lasted but one month required seven months for the resulting diplomatic negotiations. The most important provisions of the treaty are as follows:—

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 —  
 GREECE  
 —

Greeks  
 More  
 Successful on  
 Sea

The  
 Porte's  
 Terms to  
 Greece

## DIVISION III

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Pro-  
visions  
of the  
Treaty

I. The Turco-Greek frontier is to be rectified — the new line being shown on a map and not defined in the treaty itself. The line may be slightly modified on the spot of the strategic advantage of the Ottoman empire by agreement between the delegates of the Powers and of the Porte. All the details are to be fixed by a delimitation commission of delegates from the two governments and military delegates of the ambassadors and of the mediating Powers.

II. Greece is to pay Turkey a war indemnity of about \$17,600,000; also she is to pay the defaulted interest on her bonds; further, she is to place the receipt and administration of a portion of her revenue adequate to the purposes above mentioned in charge of an international commission comprising one representative of each of the six great Powers.

III. The evacuation of Thessaly, to be according to conditions set forth in the preliminary treaty, within a month after the powers shall have recognized the fulfilment of the conditions, and when the international commission shall have fixed the time for announcing the loan for the war indemnity.

IV. Prisoners of war to be exchanged immediately after ratification.

V. Full amnesty to be granted to all persons compromised in the war.

VI. Subjects of each of the two states whose position is regular in the eyes of the law to reside and move freely in the territory of the other.

VII. All inhabitants or natives of Thessaly, or of the territory ceded to Turkey, to have liberty reciprocally to emigrate, or become domiciled, or own and cultivate their lands, across the new frontier, as in the past.

VIII. Greece to pay Turkey for indemnification of private persons for losses caused by the Greek forces \$525,000.

IX. Special arrangements to be made between Greece and Turkey to avoid abuse of consular immunities, to insure the regular course of justice, and to safeguard the interests of Ottomans and foreigners in their differences with Greek subjects.

X. The Porte to have the right to submit proposals for settling questions arising from stipulations of the convention of 1881 to the Powers signatory to it, whose decisions Greece must accept.

XI. The two to conclude within three months after ratification four conventions for certain objects specified.

XII. Former postal relations between the two countries to be re-established.

XIII. Telegraphic communications to be restored.

XIV. Each country to undertake not to tolerate in its bounds proceedings for disturbance in the other.

XV. In the negotiations between Greece and Turkey, disputed points to be submitted by either country to arbitration of the representatives of the great Powers at Constantinople, whose decision is to be binding.

XVI. Ratifications of this treaty to be exchanged at Constantinople within fifteen days (from December 4).

The international commission of control over the revenues conceded for the foreign debt and for the war indemnity was duly constituted in January, 1898. The election is entrusted to a Greek company at Athens under the commission's absolute control.

Considerable disorder followed the peace treaty, and several bands of plunderers made incursions into Turkish territory. An attempt was made to assassinate the king of Greece on February 26, 1898. It was afterward learned that the would-be murderers were members of a secret club which had decided to assassinate the king because of his accepting propositions for international financial control of the revenues and a temporary continuance of Turkish troops in Thessaly.

The most lamentable part of the peace treaty is that it in no way settled the Cretan problem. Although the Powers informed Turkey that she must grant to the Cretans an absolutely autonomous government under the suzerainty of the Sultan, still Turkish troops were maintained in Crete with the result that an almost continual struggle prevailed.

In October, 1898, France, Russia, Italy, and Great Britain addressed a collective note to the Sultan demanding that the Turks evacuate Crete within a month. The evacuation was finally completed on November 14, the Sultan being allowed to maintain a small force in the island as a symbol of Turkish sovereignty. Prince George of Greece was appointed, November 26, 1898, high commissioner of the Powers in Crete, with a temporary mandate for a term of three years. He entered upon his duties on Decem-

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Revenue  
 Com-  
 mission  
 Ap-  
 pointed

Cretan  
 Problem

Per-  
 emptory  
 Order for  
 Evacua-  
 tion

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 AND  
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ber 21, on which date he landed at Canea amid enthusiastic demonstrations of popular welcome.

The Zaimis ministry, formed in October 18, 1897, just after the conclusion of the war with Turkey, voluntarily resigned November 7, 1898, considering that the exceptional circumstances under which they had assumed office no longer existed. Many reforms have been proposed by the new cabinet, organized under Zaimis. These reforms are along the line of civil service, and in the army and navy. The ministry also points out the necessity for a more stringent press law. Technical education is recommended, as also an improvement in the system of assessment and collection of taxes, and energetic measures for the repression of smuggling.

### MACEDONIA

MACEDONIA was anciently the name of a country lying northwest of the Ægean Sea. Originally of small extent, it stretched at the period of its greatest area from the Hæmus (modern Balkan) range on the north to Thessaly and the Ægean on the south, and from Epirus and Illyria on the west to Thrace on the east. The country is on the whole mountainous, especially on the south and west, but there are several large plains of great fertility. Macedonia was famous for its gold and silver mines, and its oil and wine. It contained a number of flourishing cities, of which the names are well known in ancient history, particularly Ægæe (Edessa) and Pella, the capitals, Pydna, Thessalonica, Potidæa, Olynthos, Philippi, and Amphipolis.

**Perdiccas  
 First  
 King** Perdiccas I (about 700 B. C.) is reputed to have been the first king and founder of the Macedonian monarchy. In 490 B. C., and again ten years later, Macedonia was compelled to take part with the Persians in their invasions of Greece. Under the wise and vigorous reign of Archelaus, 413–399 B. C., an admirer of Greek art and civilization, Macedonia greatly increased in prosperity and power. But a period of civil wars and anarchy then ensued, and was only terminated by the accession of Philip II (359 B. C.), who, having seated himself firmly on the throne, developed the resources of his kingdom, and laid the foundation of its future greatness. His son, Alexander III, surnamed the Great, brought half the then known world under his sway; but after his death the Macedonian

empire was broken up, and, after twenty-two years of incessant warfare, was formed into four kingdoms under his principal generals. Macedonia, with Greece, fell to Antipater's son, Cassander. But in the wars against the Gauls, the civil strifes of the descendants of Alexander's generals, and in the ambitious designs of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, Macedonia almost perished as a kingdom. It was, however, once more securely established by Antigonus Gonatas (277-239), the grandson of Alexander's general, Antigonus, who had obtained part of Asia Minor. The kingdom preserved the limits set it by Antigonus down to its conquest by the Romans in 168 B. C.

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 AND  
 MODERN  
 MACEDONIA  
 Alexander the Great

Twenty-five years later Macedonia was made a Roman province, in which Thessaly and a part of Illyria were included. On the partition of the Roman world, it was incorporated in the Eastern empire. In the end of the sixth century it was settled by Slavonic races, and subsequently formed part of the kingdoms of the Bulgarians (tenth century), Salonica (ruled by Boniface, Marquis of Montferrat), Thessalonica (1224), the Servians (fourteenth century), and finally the Turks, who still hold it. The Greeks inhabit the coast districts, while in the interior Christian Bulgarians preponderate.

Becomes a Roman Province



## THE HISTORY OF ROME

INCLUDING THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE AND THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

[*Authorities*: Geibert's *Geschichte und Topographie der Stadt Rom in Alterum* (1883-90); and the well-known works of Mommsen (Eng. trans. 1862-66), Peter, Nitzsch, Drumann, Schwegler, Duruy (Eng. trans. 1883-86), and Ihne, *Rome Imperial*: Gardthausen's *Augustus und seine Zeit* (first part 1891); Mommsen's fifth volume (Eng. trans. 1887); Merivale; Gibbon; Hermann Schiller's *Geschichte der Kaiserzeit*; Von Reumont; Gaston Boissier's *La Fin du Paganisme* (2 vols. 1891); Bury's *Later Roman Empire* (1889); Hodgkin's *Italy and her Invaders* (1880-85); and H. F. Pelham's article in the *Encyclopedia Britannica*. There are useful smaller general histories of Rome by Schmitz, Liddell, Merivale, Gilman, and Pelham, as well as a serviceable abridgment of Mommsen, Dyer's *History of the City of Rome* (2d ed. 1883), and A. Graf's *Roma nella Memoria e nelle Immaginazioni del Medio Evo* (1882-83). Rome Mediæval: Gregorovius's *Geschichte der Stadt Rom* (also in an authorized Italian translation); Von Reumont; Ranke's *History of the Popes*; Sismondi, *Abbatés L' Italia nel Medio Evo* (1891); and the *Ecclesiastical Histories* of Baronius, Robertson, and Milman. Signor Villari's excellent article on *Rome Mediæval and Modern* in the *Encyclopedia Britannica* represents much original research. Becker's *Gallus*, Lockhart's *Valerius*, Graham's *Næara*, Westbury's *Acté*, Wiseman's *Fabiola* are works of fiction dealing learnedly and attractively with Roman history and life, also the later novel, *Quo Vadis*. For the later empire, Bryce's *The Holy Roman Empire* (new edition, 1889).



ROME was a great nation of southern Europe, being at various times a kingdom, a republic, and an empire. It lasted eleven centuries till its transfer to Byzantium, where it lasted eleven centuries more. Also a religious empire, which, after 42 A. D., acquired a spiritual sway over a yet larger domain than its pagan predecessor, and which, in accord with imperial Germany, formed the twin factor of the Holy Roman Empire, dissolved in 1806.

Colonized by Alban shepherds who migrated from their hills in fear of volcanic disturbances, Rome, according to her officially adopted legends, dates from April 21, 735, B. C., when Romulus, the first of her seven kings, settled on the Palatine Mount. From

Ancient  
City  
Founded



his quadrilateral stronghold he made conquests of the Capitoline and Quirinal. After his successor Numa, the Cælian was annexed by Tullus Hostilius, and the Aventine by Ancus Marcius. To the hills, now five, under Tarquinius Priscus, the fifth king, were added the Esquiline, and Viminal by Servius Tullius, who walled in the seven with a stone fortification so that under the seventh and last king, Tarquinius Superbus, the City of the Seven Hills was already "built for empire" on marshy soil made habitable by drainage and connected with the sea-board by the Tiber, a waterway so clearly the outlet of her supremacy as to warrant the derivation of "Rome" and "Romulus" from the Rumon or river.

Latin in population, with a Sabine infusion, Rome was divided into three tribes — the Ramnes, the Tities, and the Luceres, and again into thirty curiæ. The tribal division disappeared early; that into curiæ lasted well into republican times. Out of the curiæ, originating in common religious observances, grew the "Populus Romanus," including all free-born Romans. Its king was not always hereditary either in his regal or his religious capacity, nor merely elective. When a king died, his successor was chosen by the heads (patres) of families. These patres, the guardians of religious observance, of popular right, of state interests, had power to choose a provisional king, who, with the patres for assessors, decided on the new king, who was then proposed to the curiæ in assembly (comitia curiata), and, if approved, confirmed by the patres.

The king had absolute authority, civil, religious, and military. The patres were his counselors, and the senate was always subject to the king, who consulted it at pleasure and filled up vacancies. In solemn assembly the Romans met in the Forum under the king, or "inter-rex," who put questions to the vote, when each curia voted in turn, its vote being determined by the majority within itself, and the preponderance of these votes decided the result.

Romulus, Numa, Tullus Hostilius, and Ancus Marcius — the first and third Latin, the second and fourth Sabine — are little more than legendary names; the warrior chief Romulus typified by his Roma quadrata and Comitium, or place of assembly in the Forum; the priestly Numa by his Temple of Vesta and his Regia close to it; the statesman Tullus Hostilius by his Senate House (Curia

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ROME

The  
Seven  
KingsThree  
Tribes

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Early  
Kings  
and their  
Work

Hostilia); and the administrator, Ancus Marcius, by his state-prison, his bridge across the Tiber, his fortifications of the Janiculum, and his founding of the seaport of Ostia.

In Tarquinius Priscus (616–578 B. C.) we have an Etruscan and less shadowy Romulus, admitting into the senate a hundred new patres from conquered Latin states, and laying out the Circus Maximus for the entertainment of the people. Servius Tullius, on Tarquin's initiative, distributed all freeholders (for military purposes primarily) into tribes, classes, and centuries. Under her seventh and last king, Tarquinius Superbus, Rome became formidable throughout central Italy, and owed to him the Temple of Jupiter Capitolinus, and the Cloaca Maxima—the drainage system tapping the hills around the Forum and carrying the waste into the Tiber. But Tarquin's rule was so masterful as to drive the people to revolt, the last provocation being his son's outrage on the noble Lucretia. When engaged at a siege near the coast, he was dethroned; he and his race were exiled in perpetuity, and regal government replaced by the Republic. Three great efforts to reinstate him were defeated, and he died at Cumæ.

The  
Republic

The regal check on them withdrawn, the patricians made their power so felt by the plebeians as to start a conflict between them which lasted two hundred years. The king was now represented by two consuls, elected annually, and from the patrician order. The plebeians, freeborn citizens as they were, retained their votes by classes at the comitia curiata and by centuries at the centuriata, but many of them were attached as clients to patricians who commanded their votes, and all of them were excluded from the higher offices of state. Unable to elect one of themselves consul, the plebeians had not even power to carry the patrician candidate they favored, being in a minority in the comitia centuriata, and, again, in a greater minority in the ultimate and decisive assembly, the comitia curiata. The absolute authority wielded by the consuls they felt to be still more oppressive when, in state crises, it was merged in a dictator; so their first attempt to safeguard their liberties and lives was directed at the consular power.

Plebeians  
and  
Patri-  
ciansThe  
Tribunes

The first advantage they gained was the "right of appeal," by which no magistrate (the dictator excepted) could subject a Roman citizen to capital punishment unless with approval of the comitia centuriata. Power to extort such rights the plebeians possessed in

their military capacity, refusing, as soldiers, to serve unless their demands were conceded. From two the tribunes were increased to five, and by 449 B. C. to ten. In no sense a magistrate, the tribune was a check on authority, and his power developed gradually till the tribunate, formidable at the close of the republic, became still more so under the empire.

By the Publilian law (471 B. C.) the assemblies convened by the tribune (*concilia plebis*) were made legal; not yet their decisions (*plebiscita*). At these the voting was by tribes, not by curiæ or centuries, whence the object of the tribunes was to add as many to the tribes as possible. To become a member of a tribe it was necessary to be a freeholder, and so the tribunes, to multiply freeholders, agitated to secure for the plebeians their share of the *agri publici*, or state lands. Having partially succeeded in this, they won another advantage from the ever-resisting patricians: the appointment for one year of a commission of ten patricians (*decemviri*) to make public a code of law binding on patrician equally with plebeian. This code — the famous Twelve Tables — substituted written and published law for that unwritten code which, confined to the patrician few, was always interpreted in their interests.

An attempt to reappoint, possibly to perpetuate, the decemvirate caused another secession; the consuls were again created; and from the growing vantage-ground of their *concilia*, increased by accessions to the plebeian order from without, the tribunes extorted the recognition of the *plebiscita* as legally binding on patricians. The *concilia* could henceforth carry reforms which, if sanctioned by the *patres*, had the validity of state law. The two consuls were replaced by six military tribunes drawn from either order. Of these consular tribunes the plebeians generally had the majority, until, obstacles and delays notwithstanding, the Licinian and Sextian laws were passed (367) replacing the consular tribunes by consuls, two in number, of whom one at least should be a plebeian; enlarging the priestly college from two to ten functionaries, of whom plebeians were to constitute half; relieving the poorer plebeians from debt; and promoting their interests by advantageous reforms in the ownership and cultivation of land.

Patrician monopolies shrank rapidly. In 356 the dictatorship, in 350 the censorship, in 337 the prætorship, and in 300 the col-

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AND  
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Decem-  
virs and  
Equal  
RightsConsuls  
CreatedPatri-  
cians  
Fall  
from  
Power

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 AND  
 MODERN  
 ROME

Little  
 Growth  
 During  
 Early  
 Years  
 of the  
 Republic

Rome  
 Con-  
 quers  
 All Italy

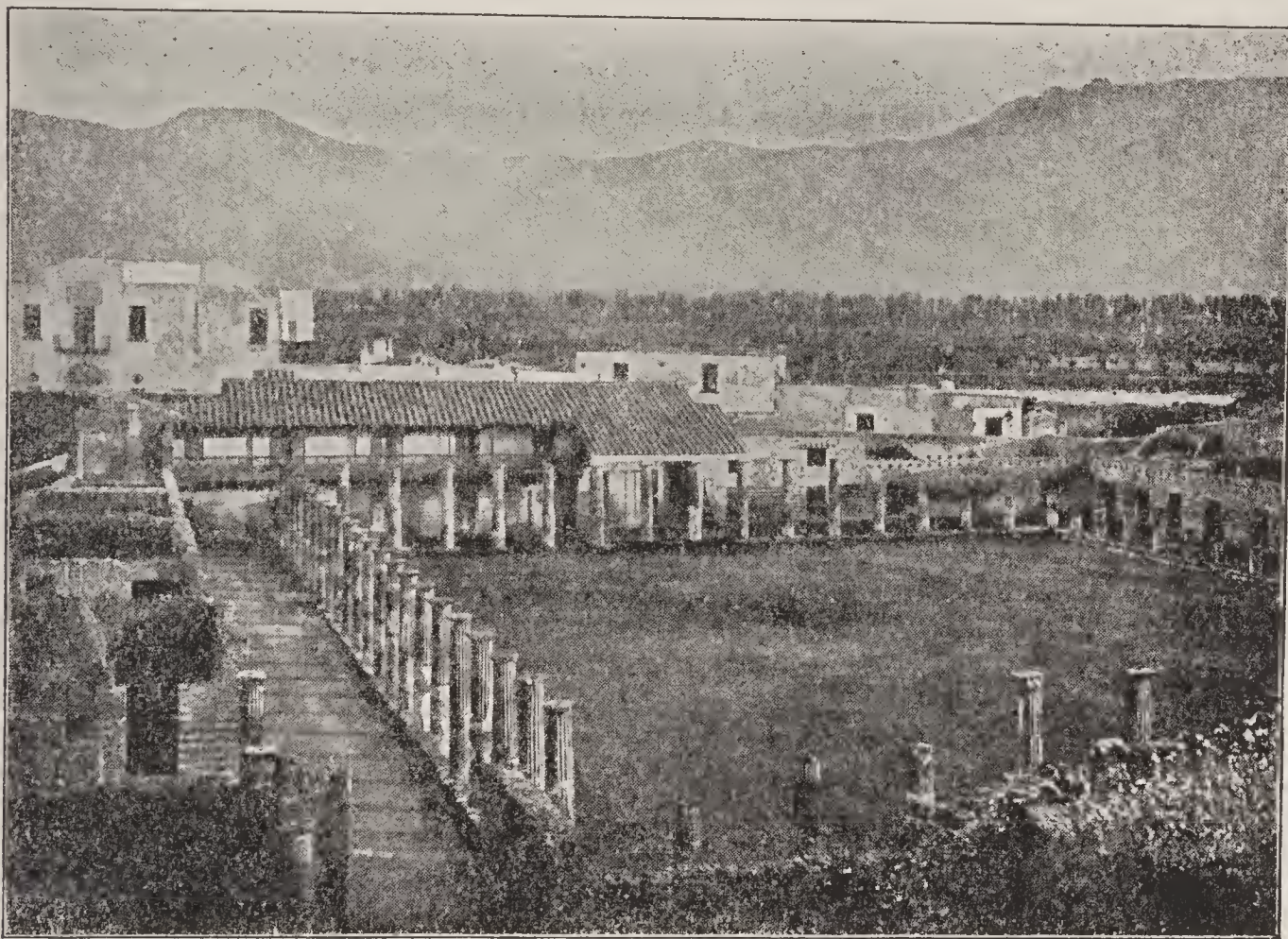
leges of pontiffs and augurs were thrown open to plebeians. The *patrum auctoritas*, or control by patricians of the decrees (*plebiscita*) of the people in assembly, became a dead letter; and the two hundred years' conflict resulted in the recognized validity of all measures carried in the comitia tributa — a conflict memorable not only for the ability displayed by either order, but for the respect for law observed equally by both.

For her first fifty years of republican life Rome expanded little. Nearest her were the Latins, the Volscians to the southeast, the Æquians to the east, and the Hernicans between the last two. Allying herself with the Latins and the Hernicans, she kept the Volscians and Æquians in check till her policy became triumphantly aggressive in the sixty years between 449 and 390. Having razed the south Etruscan stronghold, Veii, she pushed northward to the Ciminian forest, whence she drew down on her the Celtic conquerors of north Etruria, who, defeating her on the Allia, took and sacked the city, all but the capital. Recovering rapidly from this disaster, she riveted her hold on south Etruria, gradually subjugated her old enemies and allies, the Volscians, Æquians, Latins, and Hernicans, and dominated central Italy from the Ciminian forest to the Latin shore.

The Sabellian tribes of the Apennines now gave her trouble. The most powerful of these, the Samnites, had overrun Campania, but from this she dislodged them, and, in spite of a formidable revolt extending from the Sabine Hills to the Latin shore and Campania itself, she made good her command of plain and seaboard, lying compact and firm between North Etruria with its detached cities, the Apennines with their miscellaneous tribes, and southern Italy with her enervated Greek population. The Samnites, in a second war lasting twenty-two years, failed to get the better of her; in a third, with the Northern Etruscans and the Celts as allies, they made a last attempt to crush the growing giantess. This, too, she defeated after desperate conflicts, in which she purchased victory dearly; the Celts were shattered; the Etruscans bought peace by heavy indemnities; and the Samnites on honorable terms became her allies. In characteristic fashion she proceeded to consolidate what she had won, planting "colonies;" that is, agricultural garrisons of Roman citizens wherever their presence was required, and in this way controlling Central

Italy from Adriatic to Mediterranean. At the invitation of Greek Tarentum, beset with marauding hordes, she successfully intervened in the south, till in turn Tarentum, incurring her hostility (281-280), brought King Pyrrhus of Epirus to repel her. At first the Epirotes prevailed, but their two victories were as costly as defeats, and in the third great battle at Beneventum (275) they were so punished that Pyrrhus returned to Greece. The fall of Tarentum shortly after left Rome dominant in the peninsula from the extreme south of the Ligurian and Celtic frontier.

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SCHOOL OF THE GLADIATORS, POMPEII

Eleven years after her victory over Pyrrhus, Rome engaged with Carthage in her mighty struggle for the empire of the Mediterranean. To secure her expansion westward, she had first to expel the Carthaginians from Sicily. Having gained to her side the Syracusan king Hiero, she took Agrigentum, and in 260, with her first naval armament under the consul Duilius, she signally defeated Carthage on Carthage's own element. Following up this advantage, she transferred the war to Africa, and was at first so successful as to recall a considerable part of her forces. But her consul Regulus, whom she left behind, was worsted and made prisoner; a series of naval disasters ensued, and Carthage seemed about to

Rome  
 Engages  
 with  
 Carthage

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Carthage  
Invades  
Spain

regain more than she had lost of Sicily, when the consul Catulus (241), in command of a splendid fleet, gained a decisive victory over the Carthaginians, who thereupon undertook to evacuate Sicily and the adjacent islands.

This ended the first Punic war, twenty-two years in duration, the result to Rome being her acquisition, not only of Sicily, which she henceforth governed as a "province," but (a few years later) of Sardinia and Corsica, also governed like Sicily by magistrates sent every year from the capital. Finding Rome her match at sea, Carthage resumed hostilities by acquiring a foothold in Spain, which was to become her military basis for further operations against her rival. Under Hamilcar, the great general who conceived the plan, she occupied the peninsula as far as the Tagus; Hasdrubal continued the work of subjugation till his death (221); and finally Hamilcar's son, Hannibal, who, with more than his father's genius, shared all his father's antipathy to Rome, pushed the conquests of Carthage up to the Ebro.

Meanwhile Rome herself was engaged in subduing the Celts in the valley of the Po, and having planted three colonies — Placentia, Cremona, and Mutina — to safeguard her new possessions, she turned her attention to Spain, and got Carthage to make the Ebro her northern boundary in the peninsula. But such engagements could not long be respected. Saguntum, a Greek colony in alliance with Rome, on the west coast of Spain, was besieged and taken by Hannibal, though a Roman embassy to Carthage had protested against the operation.

Hannibal  
Invades  
Gaul

The second Punic war was declared in 218, and Rome sent one army under P. Cornelius Scipio to Spain, and another under T. Sempronius Gracchus through Sicily to Africa. But Hannibal's plans, long matured in secret, were carried out with unexampled celerity. Scipio had got no farther than Massilis when Hannibal, having crossed the Pyrenees, was already at the Rhone; and after fighting his way over the Alps against every obstacle, — the hostility of the tribes included, — descended on Cisalpine Gaul with but 26,000 surviving of his army of 50,000 men. Defeating the Romans on the Ticino and the Trebia, he realized his expectation of getting the Celts to join him, and in the spring of 217 he pushed on to the city, through east Etruria. He annihilated the consul Flaminius at Lake Trasimenus; and from Spolegium within

a few days of Rome he turned eastward, plundering as he went, and paused for supplies in north Apulia.

The Romans, now gravely alarmed, elected a dictator, Quintus Fabius Maximus;\* but his masterly inactivity did not satisfy them, and they sent two consuls with a numerous army to hurl back the invader. In the great battle of Cannæ, Hannibal's victory was complete — the Romans losing 70,000 men to Hannibal's 6,000, and southern Italy, all but the Latin colonies and the Greek coast-towns, came to his side.

Macedonia and part of Sicily declared for the conqueror, and the Greek communities one by one were surrendered to him. The Romans tried to recover Campania, and laid siege to Capua, and this brought Hannibal up from Tarentum. He even marched directly on Rome, and rode up to the Colline gate; but he retired unable to make any impression on the city and its defenders; he conciliated no allies; and fell back on southern Italy, leaving Capua an easy prey to its besiegers. Five years had done little to encourage the Romans, till Hasdrubal, defeated in Spain, crossed the Alps and skirted the east coast of Italy, to re-enforce Hannibal in the south. But he was beaten, and killed on the Metaurus by Nero, who turning southward marched up to Hannibal's camp and threw Hasdrubal's head into it. The war in Italy was virtually at an end. Hannibal's attempt on Rome had failed.

Meanwhile, young Publius Scipio, having driven the Carthaginians from Spain, returned to the city with the proposal to descend on Carthage herself. The senate, not without misgivings, consented. Scipio's successes in Africa compelled Hannibal to leave his vantage ground in southern Italy and come to the aid of his hard-pressed compatriots. The great battle at Zama left Scipio the victor, Hannibal a fugitive, and Carthage suing for peace. Her request was granted, and she retained her territory,

\*Quintus Fabius Maximus was elected dictator (221) immediately after the defeat of the Romans at Trasimenus. The peculiar line of tactics which he observed in the second Punic war obtained for him the surname of *Cunctator* ("Delayer"). Hanging on the heights like a thunder-cloud, to which Hannibal himself compared him, and avoiding a direct engagement, he tantalized the enemy by the favorite devices of guerrilla warfare; he harrassed them by marches and counter-marches, and cut off their stragglers and foragers; and at the same time his delay allowed Rome to assemble her forces in greater strength. But this "Fabian policy" was neither appreciated in the camp nor at home. During his fifth consulship Fabius recovered Tarentum (209 B. C.), which had long been one of Hannibal's important strongholds. He died in 203 B. C.

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Roman  
Disaster  
at CannæRomans  
Attack  
CarthageQuintus  
Fabius  
Maximus

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 ROME

but bound herself to undertake no wars outside Africa and (without the consent of Rome) no wars inside. She surrendered nearly all her navy, and had to pay an indemnity of 10,000 talents in fifty years. Rome was now (202) mistress of the Mediterranean, but she had to consolidate her acquisitions. Sicily, easily ruled under a prætor, became her granary and the provision store for her legions. Spain, however, required prætors invested with consular power and a permanent garrison of four legions to keep her in order. The insurrection of Virathus lasted till the fall of Numatia after a memorable resistance; and not before Scipio Africanus the younger took it in hand could the country really be called pacified, and its rich resources made available.

Carthage  
 Des-  
 troyed  
 by  
 Romans

Meanwhile Rome had a secret dread of the resuscitation of Carthage, and she courted every pretext of renewing war with her and razing her to the ground. That came in 151 when Carthage, goaded by Masinissa's forays, broke her treaty obligations to punish him. In 149 Rome laid siege to her, and by 146 she was stamped out from the roll of great cities. Her territory was now the Roman province of Africa, protected by Masinissa's three sons, who ruled Numidia. In Italy herself, the cities that had declared for Hannibal were severely punished. In the North the Celts forfeited their separate political existence. In the South Roman settlers occupied confiscated lands, nearly everywhere but in Apulia and Lucania; and even the Latins soon felt the preponderance of the Roman element, which tended more and more to assert itself.

Macedon  
 Reduced

Fifty years after she became mistress of the West, Rome had also become the mightiest state in the East, first by conquering Philip of Macedon, who had been the ally of Hannibal, and whose ambition to dominate the Ægean drew Rome into the second Macedonian war (200), which ended in Philip's defeat at Cynoscephalæ and the reduction of Macedon to a minor power.

Next came the liberation of Greece, which, with the alliance that followed, enabled Rome to proceed against Antiochus, king of Syria, who, in 197-196, had overrun Asia Minor, and penetrated into Thrace. Beaten by land and sea, Antiochus sustained a decisive defeat at Magnesia in Asia Minor, and fell back behind the Halys and Taurus range, to the west of which all the kingdoms and communities were now under Rome's protection. Western







THE COLOSSEUM AT ROME

Greece, however, began to give trouble, and Philip of Macedon's successor, Perseus, incurred a final encounter with the Romans in a third Macedonic war, terminating in his utter rout at Pydna (168). So that, twenty-two years thereafter, Macedonia had sunk into a Roman province, whose governor came gradually to control the Greek states till the whole peninsula was subservient to Rome.

Steadily strengthening her hold on Asia Minor, Rome further assumed the guardianship of the king of Syria; while in Egypt, which in 168 had acknowledged her suzerainty, she restored a protégé of hers to the throne, at the same time, true to her policy, dividing and weakening his power. From Syria to Spain the Mediterranean was now a Roman lake, but her authority was better established in the West than in the East. In the former her provincial government was fairly established; not so in the latter, which besides its more elastic frontier, possessed a civilization in some respects superior to her own.

With the establishment of her supremacy without, began Rome's troubles within. The ennobled plebeians (nobiles) combined with the old patrician families (optimates) to exclude all but themselves from high office or the senate. The constitution had become an oligarchy in which the comitia, nominally supreme in electing magistrates and passing laws, was practically superseded. The prestige of having saved Rome from Hannibal and raised her to undisputed empire belonged to the aristocratic senate, while the graver disasters (at Trasimene and Cannæ) were due to the people's favorites. But that prestige was getting gradually impaired by economic failure at home, and confusion abroad, and the people were awaking to a sense of the power the senate had taken from them. The small holders, particularly in Etruria and south Italy, burdened with military service, and competing vainly with foreign importations of corn and labor, deserted the farms on which they could neither thrive nor live, and the multiplication of colonies throughout the peninsula gave but temporary relief.

To arrest the imminent annihilation of these freeholders — Rome's mainstay — Tiberius Gracchus, the tribune (133), proposed his reform, which was practically the first of a series of attacks on senate-rule. Occupiers not recognized by the Licinian law were to be evicted; occupation was not to extend beyond 1,000 acres; public grazing lands were to be reclaimed for tillage.

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Reforms  
in Favor  
of the  
Poor

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The senate opposed him strenuously, and he was killed in an incidental collision; but his struggle was renewed on a larger scale by his brother Gaius, who curtailed the senatorial power by getting the comitia to deprive it of privilege after privilege. He, too, fell in a brawl, and by 111 his reforms had already been frustrated, and an entirely new aspect given to the agrarian question. But the popular party had been taught its lesson by means of the tribunate, to reassert its power in the comitia to work out its salvation.

Marius  
 the  
 Popular  
 Leader

Gaius Gracchus had been dead ten years when the client-state Numidia was seized by Jugurtha, who had supplanted its legitimate governors, and insulted the Roman name. The popular leaders insisted on his chastisement; but the war, mismanaged under patrician officers, was carried to a triumphant close by the people's favorite, the low-born, illiterate, but efficient Marius, who in January, 104, brought Jugurtha in chains to Rome. Still greater successes awaited their hero. He united the Cimbri and Teutones, who had inflicted four defeats on the patrician generals, and was made consul for the sixth time. He aided the popular vindicators, Saturninus and Glaucia, to harass the senate. But the advantages they secured were small, their violence had to be curbed by Marius himself, and at last the populace turned upon and killed them. The rise of Marius, however, was fraught with far-reaching results. His six consulships, his intervention as a soldier in politics, his military reforms, by which all classes, irrespective of rank or means, were admitted to the legion, and the compulsory levy replaced by volunteer service under a popular leader were epoch-making in the revolution.

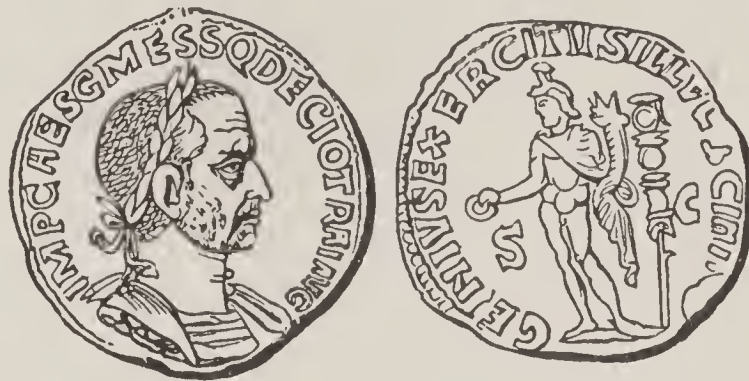
The commercial class, soon to develop into the equestrian order, had by their power in the courts and their increasing exactions as farmers-general (*publicani*) been at feud with their controllers, the magisterial class in the provinces, and fiscal reform became urgent. The Italian communities, the allies of Rome, had long felt their burdens increase as their privileges waned, and they demanded their share of the conquests they had helped to achieve. Promises of relief and expectation of securing the Roman citizenship had brought them in crowds to the capital, to be driven back again by an exclusive senate and people. The tribune Drusus strove to bring about fiscal reform and the redress of the Italians,

but though he carried his laws he could not make them valid, and finally he was assassinated. The equestrians remained supreme in the courts, while the murder of Drusus roused the Italians to rebellion (90-89) in the central highlands and the south especially.

The Social war began, the insurgents aiming at the erection of a new Italian state governed on the lines of the Roman constitution. To suppress them, the two consuls of the year, each with five legates, including Marius and his future rival Sulla, headed the legions, but were disastrously beaten. In the north, however, Marius and Sulla, and in Campania the consul Cæsar, were partly victorious, but so partially that reform after reform had to be conceded, till the Italians could obtain the franchise merely for the asking. The war at length died out by the absorption of the insurgents into the Roman citizenship; but the internal troubles continued. The new citizens enlarged their political claims, the senate was distracted by personal feuds, economic distress prevailed among all, and a war

with Mithridates threw Marius and Sulla into rivalry as to which should command the expeditionary force.

The action of the tribune Sulpicius in dealing with this complicated crisis intensified it the more. He introduced laws to entrust Marius with the Mithridatic campaign, to allow the new citizens to vote in all, not in a restricted number of, tribes, to confine the freedmen to the four urban tribes no longer, to unseat any senator more than 2,000 denari in debt, to recall from exile those suspected of complicity with the Italian insurgents. Every one of these proposals, bitterly contested, would yet have become law but for the consul Sulla, who, heading in Campania the legions assigned him in the Social war, marched on Rome—the first consul who ever invaded her with her own troops. The flight of Marius and Sulpicius left him free to impose arbitrary measures, among them that by which the sanction of the senate was required before any bill could be entertained by the comitia; and, having seen the consular elections safely through, he set out against Mithridates (87).



COIN OF DECIUS TRAJANUS. ACTUAL SIZE (COPPER)

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Social  
 War

Marius  
 and  
 Sulla

Sulla  
 Marches  
 on Rome

## DIVISION III

## EUROPE

ANCIENT  
AND  
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## ROME

Cinna  
Becomes  
Consul

In his absence Cinna attempted as consul to carry out the reforms of Sulpicius, but was driven from Rome amid the massacre of the new citizens in voting assembly. He in turn rallied round him the legions in Campania, and joined by the veteran Marius, who reappeared from Africa, he entered Rome, and was recognized as consul, as was Marius himself (for the seventh time). After a brutally vindictive massacre Marius died (86), and Cinna remained supreme, securing the consulship to himself and a confederate, and getting the newly enfranchised Italians enrolled in all the tribes. In 84 he died, and next year Sulla, having concluded a peace with Mithridates and left Asia tranquil, landed at Brundisium with a powerful army, including many of the nobles who had fled from Cinna. Resistance, nowhere formidable, he quickly overcame, and (82) entered Rome, to find his lieutenants triumphant in north Italy, and to annihilate the remnants of the Marian party just outside the city. But he failed to use his power, absolute as it was, for the abatement of long-standing evils, and the prevention of coming disasters. Triumphant everywhere, he instituted a reign of terror, slaying, proscribing, and confiscating through revenge or suspicion.

Still fortifying the senate, Sulla left the tribunes with no power of interdict save in protecting individual plebeians, and he excluded them from ever holding high office; he took from the equestrians the control of the courts, giving it back to the senate, to which he also restored its exclusive rights in the colleges of pontiffs and augurs. He extended the application of the criminal law, a wise measure; but he did more than any Roman before him to facilitate the rise to supreme power of any ambitious governor of a province or leader of a provincial army. He forged, in fact, the weapon by which his system fell (70).

Pompey  
Made  
Consul

In Spain, Cneius Pompey, one of Sulla's favorites, held a commission from the senate to crush the Marian governor, Sertorius, who had defeated successive proconsuls sent to humble him. With the submission of the natives, following the murder of Sertorius, he returned to Rome, and found the opposition to Sulla looking out for a leader to effect a change of government. His ambition to have a triumph, to be made consul for next year (70), and by consequence to receive command in the East, was gratified for the sake of his name and influence. He was elected consul

with Crassus, the victor over Spartacus, their troops being just outside the gates, and on the triumph and ovation granted to the two generals ensued Pompey's fulfilment of the bargain—the reinstatement of the tribunes in their authority and of the equestrians in the courts, and the weeding out from the senate of Sulla's notorious tools.

The example set by Sulla was improved upon, and henceforth the republican constitution was at the mercy of the strongest leader supported by the strongest battalions. Pompey's next move was to obtain command abroad, and after some delay this was found in a mission to clear the Mediterranean of pirates. For this formidable undertaking the tribune Gabinius secured him large powers, tenable for three years, including authority over all Roman magistrates in the Mediterranean provinces for fifty miles inland. These, backed by a splendid fleet and army, were yet further enhanced by the tribune Manilius, who got Pompey entrusted with the campaign against Mithridates, and with the charge of Roman interests in the East. The wiser senators gave ominous warning against these measures, but were powerless against tribunes and people, seconded by equestrians, who, as the commercial class, drew much of their wealth from Asia. So Pompey set out in 67.

Meanwhile Cæsar had come to the front—a patrician—who was also the nephew of Marius and son-in-law of Cinna, and whose consummate ability, shown in the revindication of the tribunate and the carrying of the measures in support of Pompey, had full scope, now that Pompey's back was turned. He deepened his hold on the people by avenging the injured names of Marius, Cinna, and Saturnius, pleading for the children of the proscribed, and bringing Sulla's headsmen to justice.

Rising in popular favor by his efforts to enfranchise the Transpadane Latins and his munificent promotion of public works and entertainments, he spared no means, constitutional or the reverse, to put himself on even terms with Pompey before that magnate's return. Crassus, the millionaire, he found a tractable auxiliary, in concert with whom he was rapidly gaining powers hardly inferior to Pompey's, when the Catilinarian conspiracy\* (63), exposed and

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Pompey  
 Takes  
 Com-  
 mand  
 in the  
 East

Rise of  
 Julius  
 Cæsar

\* Catiline, the Roman conspirator, was born about the year 108 B. C. of an ancient patrician but impoverished family. His youth was stained with profligacy and crime. He attached himself to the party of Sulla, and reveled in the bloodshed and confusion

Catiline

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The  
Trium-  
virate

defeated by Cicero as consul, involved Cæsar in the ill-will in which the middle classes held popular adventurers.

Pompey had now returned to importune the senate for the ratification of his measures in Asia, and the bestowal of land on his legionaries. His demands met with determined opposition, till Cæsar, posing as his friend, formed with him and Crassus the coalition,—the first, if irregular, triumvirate,—of which Pompey was the head, Cæsar engaging to see Pompey satisfied, and Pompey in return promoting Cæsar's candidature for the consulship.

Cicero strove to undo a coalition he knew to be fatal to his ideal of a conservative republic, but in vain; he saw the senate weak-

that disgraced its triumph. His body was capable of enduring any labor or fatigue, and his mind was masterful, resolute, and remorseless. Despite his infamies he was elected prætor in the year 68 B. C., and next year governor of Africa, but was disqualified as a candidate for the consulship in 66 by charges of maladministration in his province. Disappointed thus in his ambition, and burdened with debts, he saw no hope for himself but in the chances of a political revolution, and therefore entered into a conspiracy, including many other young Roman nobles, in morals and circumstances like himself. The plot, however, was revealed to Cicero by Fulvia, mistress of one of the conspirators. Operations were to commence with the assassination of Cicero in the Campus Martius, but the latter was kept aware of every step of the conspiracy, and contrived to frustrate the whole design. In the night of November 6 (63 B. C.), Catiline assembled his confederates, and explained to them a new plan for assassinating Cicero; for bringing up the Tuscan army (which he had seduced from its allegiance), under Manlius, from the encampment at Fæsulæ; for setting fire to Rome, and putting to death the hostile senators and citizens. In the course of a few hours, everything was made known to Cicero. Accordingly, when the chosen assassins came to the house of the consul, on pretense of a visit, they were immediately repulsed. Two days later, Catiline, with his usual reckless audacity, appeared in the senate, when Cicero—who had received intelligence that the insurrection had already broken out in Etruria—commenced the celebrated invective beginning: "*Quousque tandem abutere, Catilina, patientia nostra?*" (How long now, Catiline, will you abuse our patience?) The conspirator was confounded, not by the keenness of Cicero's attack, but by the minute knowledge he displayed of the plot. His attempt at a reply was miserable, and was drowned in cries of execration. With curses on his lips, he rushed out of the senate, and escaped from Rome during the night. Catiline and Manlius were now denounced as traitors, and an army under the consul Antonius was sent against them. The conspirators who remained in Rome, of whom the chief were Lentulus and Cethegus, were at once arrested. After a great debate in the senate (December 5), in which Cæsar and Cato took a leading part on opposite sides, the conspirators were condemned to death. The sentence was executed that night in prison. The insurrections in several parts of Italy were meanwhile suppressed; many who had resorted to Catiline's camp in Etruria deserted when they heard what had taken place in Rome, and his intention to proceed into Gaul was frustrated. In the beginning of January he returned into Etruria, where he encountered the forces under Antonius, and after a desperate battle in which he fought with more than the courage of despair, he was defeated and slain.



ened by a quarrel with the equestrians and its authority impugned by the friends of Catiline, who arraigned him for having, with the senate's approval, violated the law in putting to death the conspirator's lieutenants. The triumvirate in 59 fulfilled its compact. Cæsar obtained the consulship and the satisfaction of Pompey's demands, conciliated the equestrians at the expense of the senate, and carried an agrarian law, enabling him one day to reward his faithful troops. But his crowning success was his obtaining for five years the military command of Cisalpine Gaul, Illyricum, and later of Transalpine Gaul, from which he could scan every political move in Italy.

Next year (58) Clodius, the tribune, proceeded against Cicero, who, thrown over by Pompey and with Cæsar out of reach, fled from Rome, and was outlawed — to be recalled (57), and his outlawry annulled by senate and people, in the reaction induced by Clodius's misdeeds. Cicero, to fortify the constitution, renewed his efforts, only to fail and retire from public life. The triumvirs tightened their alliance. Cæsar secured his command for five years more; Pompey and Crassus were elected consuls, and Pompey received as province the two Spains, with Africa, and Crassus, Syria — the Roman empire being at the mercy of all three, not, however, for long. Crassus was defeated and killed by the Parthians (53), and Pompey was slowly but surely drawn into antagonism with Cæsar.

Rome in the absence of efficient government, was in ceaseless turmoil, till the senate in despair induced Pompey to remain in Italy, electing him sole consul (52), giving him, with fresh legions, five years' more command, and in fact, pitting him as its champion against Cæsar. It tried to reduce Cæsar to impotence, either by keeping him at his post, and so balking his candidature for the consulship, which required his presence in the capital, or by terminating his command at its legal expiry, to detach him from his troops, and make him pursue his candidature in Rome as a private individual. Negotiations between him and the senate only left the latter more uncompromising; and with well-inspired audacity he crossed the Rubicon (49), and advanced on the city.

Unprepared for such a move, Pompey and most of the senatorial party, including the consuls and many nobles, withdrew to Greece, leaving Cæsar to enter Rome in triumph. The mighty

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Rome in  
 Turmoil

Cæsar  
 Enters  
 Rome in  
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duel between the two chiefs had begun. After a brief pause Cæsar hurried to Spain, and, victorious over the powerful armies of Pompey's legates, returned to Rome, where, appointed dictator in his absence, he almost immediately renounced the post, and as consul for 48 crossed over into Greece, and dealt Pompey a crushing blow at Pharsalia. The Pompeian cause struggled on till 45, when it collapsed at Munda, and Cæsar was made by the senate dictator for life.

Unlike Sulla, Cæsar used his power with a clemency, a states-



INTERIOR OF PANTHEON, ROME

man-like wisdom, and a patriotism that made men almost forgive, if not forget, how he came by it.

Cæsar's  
 Reforms

His salutary reforms and innovations were many, but here interest centers in the significance of the empire he initiated. That meant the merely nominal retention of the old constitution with its senate, its comitia, its consuls, and its tribunes, under the fiction that the supreme power was held at the people's will. Really, it meant an autocracy reaching to the remotest province, resting in the last resort on the military arm — an autocracy whose founder took the title "Imperator," as expressing his arbitrary and uncontrolled imperium, in token of which he appeared with the

laurel wreath, and the triumphal garb and scepter. From the senate, which he summoned and presided at, to the assembly where he carried laws, and the court where he dispensed justice, he was everywhere the chief magistrate. The empire he deigned to bequeath was to be bounded by the ocean on the west, by the Rhine and Danube on the north, by the Caucasus and the Euphrates on the east, and by the African desert on the south, and within these limits he wanted to extend the Roman citizenship, and admit their communities to share the government. This scheme of consolidation he did not live to carry out; but he reduced fiscal burdens in the provinces, and curbed the authority of their governors.

His assassination, March 15, 44 B. C., was followed by an attempt, powerfully aided by Cicero, to win back the old republican constitution; but Cæsar's representative, Antony, at the head of seventeen legions, combined with Lepidus and Octavian, just made consul, in spite of his youth, to form the second triumvirate, which began operations by proscribing and assassinating its opponents — Cicero among the number. A stand made at Philippi by Brutus and Cassius was crushed by Octavian and Antony, after which the triumvirs divided the empire among them — Octavian taking Italy and the west, Antony the east, and Lepidus Africa. Antony contemplated with Cleopatra an Eastern empire, while Lepidus, having lost Africa, was exiled, and the death of Sextus Pompeius, after the destruction of his fleet in the Mediterranean, left Octavian, who had been sagaciously strengthening his position in the West, with only Antony for a rival. The inevitable collision took place off Actium (31), and the victorious Octavian, after the suicide of Cleopatra and her paramour, remained master of the East (29). Two years more saw him in Rome, the grand-nephew and heir of Cæsar, armed with authority to mold a government out of republican and imperial institutions. For this he had every qualification.

Augustus began (28–27 B. C.) by a restoration of the republic, with himself as princeps, the republican constitution being retained, while the princeps held the real power. By decrees of the senate he assumed, in token of supreme dignity, the cognomen "Augustus," and also the proconsulare imperium, which far exceeded the old proconsular command in width of area and length of tenure, the

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Cæsar  
Assas-  
sinatedThe  
Roman  
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Powers  
 of Au-  
 gustus

provinces being governed by legates appointed and controlled by him alone. Of army and navy he was commander-in-chief, raising or dissolving both, and declaring or concluding war at pleasure. The provinces, previously at the mercy of nominees of the Roman people, now under the control of the princeps or emperor, gradually gained equality with the Italians as Roman citizens, and made corresponding advances in civilization and prosperity.

With the establishment of the imperial system the fortunes of Rome are reflected in those of her emperors. Henceforth we have but to deal with epoch-making events. Tiberius (14–27 A. D.) had little of his predecessor's esteem, genuine or assumed, for republican institutions. The senate became more of an imperial tool, all power more and more embodied in the princeps. The simple mode of life affected by Augustus was replaced by a splendor conspicuous in multiplying palatial residences, in the bodyguards, the courtiers, the aulic etiquette subsequently carried to unheard of lengths. The population of Rome, from the highest to the humblest, deteriorated — a wealthy, indolent, luxurious upper class maintaining mobs of dependents, below whom was the proletariat, which the emperor from time to time provisioned and amused. Secure against public opinion, Tiberius relied on the military arm, and in Rome herself had his prætorian guard, some 6,000 strong, within ready call. These troops acquired a power which overshadowed all others as the emperors became more and more dependent on them.

Roman  
 Decline

Utter De-  
 pravity of  
 Roman  
 Rulers

Caligula (37–41) did much to show with what depravity the imperial system was compatible, and in the succeeding reigns of Claudius (41–54) and of Nero \* (54–68) the evils it could generate had further illustration. The former, made emperor by the prætorians, in defiance of the senate, was the creature of profligate and scheming wives, the second of whom poisoned him; the latter perpetrated every crime or excess within his power, till, at the age of thirty, he committed suicide, to the joy of Romans, provincials, and of the army itself. Like his two predecessors, he had first been hailed by the soldiers as imperator, and thereafter invested with power by the senate; but with him the succession from Augustus expired; and whom to replace him by was the question.

\* The historical novel, *Quo Vadis*, by Sienkiewicz, presents a thrilling view of the times of Nero.

Galba (69), the nominee of senate and soldiers, alike incurred the enmity of the prætorians, who killed him in the interests of Otho (69), now proclaimed emperor. But the legions on the German frontier preferred their own general, Vitellius (69). Otho, defeated at the head of his prætorians, committed suicide, and Vitellius succeeded him, in turn to be murdered after being disavowed by the army in Syria, who proclaimed their commander, Vespasian. With him began the Flavians (69–96), strong and beneficent emperors, save one. Vespasian (69–79) disclaimed the divine attributes associated with the Cæsar-worship of his Julian predecessors, and not only returned to the simple life and more modest court of early imperial days, but tried to resuscitate the authority of the senate, and even ostentatiously to keep himself within the law, and to promote the welfare of the people. Titus (79–81) improved on this sound policy, while providing public baths and the amusements of the colosseum; but his brother, Domitian (81–96) became infamous for profligacy and cruelty, popular only with the worst of his prætorians. Nerva (96–98) was restoring the best traditions of the Flavii, when, after sixteen months' reign, he was murdered by the prætorians, impatient of his austerities — not, however, before he had adopted as son and successor Trajan (98–117), commanding on the Rhine. The assumption of empire by a born provincial illustrates the gradual weakening of Rome's connection with her rulers, whose seat of government became really the military headquarters for the time being.

Trajan and the following three emperors gave Rome a century of beneficent rule — the happiest hundred years yet known to her. Living like a plain soldier, he conciliated the senate by the deference he paid it, and the people, whose good he consulted, while keeping the Roman name respected abroad. His adopted successor, Hadrian (117–138), gave up to travel the time spent by Trajan in war, visiting the provinces from the East to Britain, providing them with public buildings, improving the discipline of the army, and indeed the whole administrative organization. A provincial himself, he adopted a provincial to succeed him — Aurelius Antoninus, a native of Gaul (138–161). He, too, earned the love of the Roman world, and on his death an adopted son of his, Marcus Aurelius, became emperor (161–180). He was a thinker

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Trajan's  
Rule  
Good

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and moralist, whom necessity made also a man of action, called away to defend the Danube and Upper Rhine. Unhappy in his wife, he was still more so in his son Commodus, and died at headquarters, closing the line of the good emperors. The profligate reign of Commodus (183–192) accentuated still more the ascendancy of the soldiers, who killed his upright and austere successor, Pertinax (193), and became for nearly a century the makers and unmakers of emperors.

**Soldiers  
 Rule the  
 Empire**

The Augustan system was gone; except on a few insignificant occasions, the senate did not assert its right to nominate; the soldiers, often serving on the frontiers, were the arbiters of empire. The prætorians next sold it to the highest bidder, the rich senator Didius Julianus; but this was resented by the provincial armies, who started their own nominees.

The ensuing conflicts between these “pretenders” resulted in the triumph of Septimius Severus (193–211), an able, unscrupulous African soldier, who, ignoring the senate, till then the formal ratifiers of imperial authority, set the further precedent of posing as proconsul in the city itself, made the palace, not the forum, the justice-seat, and raised the prefect of the prætorians to power only inferior to his own.

**Rome  
 Weak at  
 Every  
 Frontier**

Caracalla (211–217), that he might impose on the provinces the taxes paid by Rome, gave the rights of citizenship to the former, thus equalizing all and unifying the empire. His brutal personality has no further interest for us any more than that of his fifteen successors, nearly all of whom came by a violent death, generally at the hands of the soldiers who had set them up. They left the Roman empire weak at every frontier, exposed to the Franks on the Rhine and the Goths on the Danube. The former ravaged Gaul and Spain, the latter Asia Minor and Greece, while the Persians, relieved of the Parthian yoke, had again become a formidable power in the East.

**Unity  
 Restored  
 Temporarily**

In Rome and throughout Italy anarchy and distress prevailed till a temporary revival was brought about by the Illyrian emperors — Claudius (268–270) driving back the Goths, and the yet abler Aurelian (270–275), by his victories over Goths and Germans and his successes in the East and West, restoring the luster of the Roman arms, and, for a brief space, the unity of the empire.

Diocletian (284–305), also an Illyrian, the next great name on the imperial roll, introduced a system of safeguards against dissolution within and aggression from without. He assumed the most capable colleague he could find to share with him the government of the empire. This was Maximian, who like himself took the title of Augustus. He further re-enforced this dual control by associating with him Galerius and Constantius, able generals, like Maximian, whom he proclaimed as Cæsar's, below the two Augusti in rank, but with the right of succession to these. He himself had Thrace, Egypt, and Asia under him; to Maximian he gave Italy and Africa; to Constantius Gaul, Spain, and Britain; to Galerius the Danubian provinces. Thus internal sedition was suppressed within the empire, and, this distraction removed, the frontier fortifications could be perfected. The Rhine, the Danube, and the Persian boundary were garrisoned at frequent intervals, and the barbarians kept in check, while all temptation of the soldiers to sedition was overawed by the repressive measures at the command of the four rulers acting in concert.

Rome now ceased to be the one capital. If she remained a capital, it was as the seat of a nominal senate. The Augusti and Cæsars lived at their headquarters,—Diocletian at Nicodemia, Maximian at Milan, Constantius at Treves, Galerius at Sirmium. This was a momentous departure from the tradition by which the emperors had claimed to be but the supreme magistrates of the city and the chief of her armies. Rome indeed was less imperial than any town in which the emperor chose to live. The policy of keeping the soldiery estranged from the emperor's presence took the form of increased dignity in his demeanor and mode of life, the oriental magnificance introduced by Aurelian reaching extravagant lengths in Diocletian. He reorganized the services, civil and military, under new titles, which came to be more valued than the republican consul or senator, and typified the completely autocratic power he assumed. So long as he lived, his system worked effectively; but after twenty-one years, and in breaking health, he abdicated publicly the power he felt incapable of wielding. His masterful personality no longer felt, ruptures between Cæsars and Augusti ended in civil wars, till the son of Cæsar Constantius, Constantine, who had himself become Cæsar of the army in Britain, overcame all rivalry, and in 323 ruled the empire single-handed.

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**Maximian's Protective Measures****Rome Ceases to be the Capital****Constantine in Power**

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Rise of  
Chris-  
tianity

Christianity, since its rise under Augustus, and its spread under Tiberius and the later emperors, had triumphed over the last attempt under Diocletian to crush it by persecution, and the politic Constantine, adopting it as his own religion, made it also the state's. To the tottering imperial fabric it brought new strength, armed with which he proceeded to develop Diocletian's policy of rehabilitation.

Byzan-  
tium  
Becomes  
the  
Capital

From Rome he transferred the seat of government to Byzantium, henceforth called Constantinople, commanding by its position the Greek and Asiatic worlds. Remodeling Rome's traditional institutions, he made a new senate, with a large infusion of Greeks, all of his own choosing; he founded in the "Rome on the Bosphorus" an absolute monarchy. Reducing the number of soldiers under each general, he weakened the army's power to revolt by dividing it into two classes, one for the towns, the other for the frontiers. The same subdividing process he carried into the provinces. These measures, coupled with the prestige of the new religion,\* re-enforced the empire greatly; but the taxation required

Constan-  
tine  
Founds  
an  
Absolute  
Mon-  
archy

## Religion

\* The religion of ancient Rome was in pedigree closely akin to the Greek, which accounts for the ease with which in later times the two religions became blended. Rome's earliest occupants, the Latins and the Sabines, had, like the Greeks themselves, a Pelasgic progeniture, and the greater number of her divinities were ultimately descended, through the Latin and Sabine, from Pelasgic originals. The Etruscan infusion into Roman nationality affected religion mainly on its external side, that of ceremonial. Among these Italian races,—Latin, Sabine, Etruscan,—religion took an Italian development, redolent of their racial and local characteristics, of which, as compared with the Greeks, lack of creative power was one; hence we miss in the Roman divine world that wealth of legend which makes the Greek so picturesque, while from the same cause the Roman divinities betray fewer of the failings by which those of Greece often sink to the human level. The Roman genius, with its practical and objective turn, determined the more observant spirit of its religious worship, which in its minute attention to detail, both in word and act, implied a graver, more reverential notion of deity. Sprung from shepherds and husbandmen of the simplest patriarchal type, the early Romans strike a rural and domestic note in their religion, worshipping especially the gods of nature, of field and forest, the bounteous protectors of flocks, or donors of harvests, like Faunus, Vertumnus, Saturn, Ops, and the gods who shielded the house and its inmates, gods of the family (Lares and Penates). This worship long retained in Rome the rural and household traits of its original inspiration, and far down in the history of the empire we find numerous festivities, antique as to observance and yearly as to recurrence, in the Saturnalia, Lupercalia, and such like. Side by side with her agricultural, pastoral, and household divinities, Rome, from the earliest times, continued to worship the deities who protected her civic life—state-deities, like her founder and maintainer, Jupiter. With her political growth these came more and more to the front. After Jupiter, the head of the divine world, comes Mars, the defender of the city, father of Romulus and of the



to keep it up proved an element of weakness. The forays of barbarians, increasing in number and range, steadily reduced the means of these small holders, who thus, except in profound peace,

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Roman people, and Quirinus, the deified Romulus. A second Rome-defending trinity was composed of Jupiter, with his sister and consort Juno and his daughter Minerva. Beside them in reverential honor was worshiped Vesta, goddess of the sacred fire and of the household hearth, which was the groundwork of the state. The deities just enumerated, especially the protective or tutelary deities, formed the main body of the state religion of the Romans — a state religion of which their second king, the Sabine Numa, was the revered founder and organizer. Of subordinate importance, but closely intertwined with public life and its concerns, came the worship of abstract, chiefly moral, entities, embodied in the religious conception as Virtus, Fides, Pietas. Such deities gradually multiplied according to the appreciation or whim of individuals, till nearly every possible condition or influence, including the commonest occurrences and agencies, even accidental phenomena, were endowed with divine being, and worshiped accordingly. So we find Orbona, the averter of bereavement and bringer of comfort to its victims; Fessonia, the preserver from weariness; Quies, Febris, Abeona, and Adeona (the goddesses invoked on departure and arrival). The natural world, the civic, the moral — the three elements above indicated — were the chief components of Rome's religion, and during her supremacy constituted a triune whole, jealously guarded by the state from every foreign contamination. But with the spread of her dominion, particularly on her coming into closer contact with the Greeks in lower Italy, she imported into her religion extraneous, mostly Greek, objects and modes of worship. She came early to revere the oracular Apollo of Delphi, and (432) erected in Rome a temple in his honor as the plague-averting deity. Castor and Pollux were another acclimatization, and her temple to them dates from 304. The worship of Æsculapius she took from Epidaurus (291). So long as her civilization continued, national Rome kept this foreign cult, though introduced and sanctioned by the state, as something separate from her old constitutional religion, which was thus maintained free from all corrupting or disintegrating infusion. Subsequently to the second Punic war, however, — that turning-point in her civilization, — in an incredibly short time she became penetrated by Greek influences, and threw wide the door to the mythological traditions of Greece. She did indeed retain, for the most part, the names she had given her gods and the rites by which she worshiped them; but these were gradually undermined and overspread by Greek notions, until her literature, in so far as it dealt with religion, became impregnated with Greek legend and spirit. Nor was it Greece at her best that Rome followed in this subjection to her influence. Greece had long parted with her better traditions, and could convey little but what was skeptical and frivolous of her own or what was superstitious and fleshly of her eastern neighbors. Asia and Egypt, through the intermediation of Greece, and latterly at first hand, became the source of a somber, sensual, degrading cult, which Rome, professedly at least, attached to her healthier, more masculine worship, strove fruitlessly to countervail. Augustus did his best to prop up the declining religion through restoration of old usages and festivals, the rebuilding of temples on a more magnificent scale, and the discouragement of superstitious importations. Ovid made himself the poet of a similar inspiration in his *fasti*, wherein he tried, by revivifying the old forgotten ceremonies, to reawaken the spirit from which these had sprung. Later emperors interposed from time to time in the same cause; but in vain. Religion and morals deteriorated with a rapidity that helps to explain the steady, irresistible advance of that religion of which Rome became the seat.

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Julian in  
 Gaul

could not satisfy the tax-gatherers. The death of Constantine was the signal for civil war among the rival Cæsars, till Constantine's only surviving son, Constantius II (351-363), succeeded in reuniting the empire under the same house. Not without misgiving he made a "Cæsar" of his cousin Julian, and entrusted him with Gaul, where Julian's success was such as to rouse his jealousy. Constantius accordingly commanded his cousin's legions to start for Persia; but instead of complying they proclaimed Julian emperor and Augustus. Constantius died soon after, and an inevitable collision was averted.

Julian (361-363) interests us more by his defense of the Rhine frontier, and his Persian campaign than by his "apostasy" from Christianity. He succeeded in staving off the barbarian inroads on the Western provinces; but his diversion in favor of the "creed outworn" did not survive his last encounter on the Tigris, where he was killed. Jovian, who succeeded him on the battle-field, outlived him a few months, and Valentinian I (364-375), the next emperor, at the instance of the army which proclaimed him, took as colleague his brother Valens, whom he made emperor of the East. For ten years the dual government prevailed, and the barbarians were kept in check at the Rhine and Danube, but his death found Valens unequal to his post.

Goths  
 Threaten  
 Constantinople

The  
 Roman  
 Empire  
 Perma-  
 nently  
 Divided

The Goths, goaded by the Huns in their rear, had thrown themselves on the hospitality of their imperial neighbors, but were so harshly treated that they turned on them and killed Valens in battle (378). They threatened Constantinople, but the next emperor, Theodosius (379-395), made them his allies and even auxiliaries, so that he was able to keep on the throne his colleague of the West, the feeble Gratian. That emperor was murdered (383) by Maximus, whom Theodosius recognized as Cæsar, and left in command of Gaul, Spain, and Britain, till Maximus (386), worsted by Theodosius in his attempt on Italy and Africa, was compelled to acknowledge Valentinian II as emperor in the West (391). A few months afterward Valentinian was murdered by Arbogast, the Frank, who nominated in his place a creature of his own, Eugenius. Again Theodosius triumphed over the usurper; but after his great victory at Aquileia, he died (395), leaving as emperors his two sons — Arcadius in the East and Honorius in the West.

The next eighty years are among the most dismal in the world's history. The provinces, drained to inanition by taxation levied for army and court, were further visited by intestine war and barbarian inroads. At first the policy of conciliating the invader, and giving him military command and administrative office, succeeded. But gradually the barbarians, established in the East, began to aim at conquest in the West; and Alaric the Goth first occupied Illyricum, whence he ravaged Greece, to be driven out by the Vandal Stilicho, the able general of Honorius. Retain-

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TEMPLE OF JUPITER, POMPEII

ing Illyricum, he led his people en masse into Italy; but after his crushing defeat at Pollentia he again retreated before Stilicho. On the murder of that officer he returned, and besieged and took Rome, which bought him out at a heavy price. Honorius, from his seat at Ravenna, could not be made to concede him the lands he wanted for his people, and the post in the imperial army he claimed for himself, so Alaric again appeared before Rome, to accept the office of commander-in-chief under her improvised "Augustus," the prefect Attalus.

This incapable ruler was displaced by Alaric, who resumed his

**Alaric  
the  
Goth  
Invades  
Italy.  
Takes  
Rome**

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negotiations with Honorius. These being again fruitless, he took, and sacked the city, but died shortly after. His successor, Ataulf, drew off his people to Gaul, and (419) a succeeding king, Wallia, received formal permission from Honorius to settle in the southwest, where at Toulouse he founded the Visigothic dynasty.

Spain  
 Given  
 Over  
 to the  
 Invaders

Spain, already divided between Vandals, Sueves, and Alans, was in like manner formally made over to those invaders by Honorius, whose authority at his death (423) was, on the Western continent, merely nominal. His successor, Valentinian III (423–455), witnessed the conquest of Africa by the Vandals, and of Gaul and Italy by the Huns. The former, under Genseric, having taken Carthage, were recognized by Valentinian in their new African kingdom in 440; and the latter, the rulers, under Attila, of central and northern Europe, confronted the emperors and West alike as an independent power. Attila marched first on Gaul, but the Visigoths, since their conciliation by Honorius, were loyal enough to oppose him, and commanded by Ætius, signally defeated the Huns at Chalons (451). Next year Attila invaded Lombardy, but got no farther, and died (453). In that year Valentinian, the last representative of the house of Theodosius in the West, was murdered; but his nine successors were of little importance.

The outstanding events in the history of Rome are now her siege and sack by Genseric (455), and the quarrel between the Emperor Orestes (a Pannonian) and the barbarian soldiery in Italy, the latter requesting and the former refusing a grant of a third of the lands. The soldiery defeated and killed Orestes, whose son, Romulus Augustulus, resigned the “useless purple” in favor of their leader, Odoacer, in 476 A. D.

The empire of the West was gone, Italy was under a barbarian king, and Rome ceased to be the capital. Thenceforth the history of Rome is merged into that of Italy.

But the loss of Italy and the Western provinces from the control of the Roman empire, which is signalized by Odoacer's accession, has readily been regarded as marking the opening of a new epoch. It made possible in the West the advance of a Romano-Germanic civilization. It facilitated the growth of new and distinct states and nationalities. It gave a new impulse to the influence of the Christian church, and laid the foundation of the power of the bishops of Rome.

## THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE

The existence of the Byzantine, or Eastern empire, as a separate dynasty lasted over one thousand years, from the death of Theodosius the Great in 395 A. D., to the fall of Constantinople, 1453. The origin of the empire dates back to 330 A. D., when Constantine removed the capital of the Roman empire from Rome to the then unimportant city of Byzantium on the Bosphorus. This act was due partly to the fact that Constantine's conversion to Christianity had made the atmosphere of pagan Rome less congenial than that of the East, where the new religion had made great progress; and partly to the fact that the center of population, wealth, and culture had moved eastward, owing to the Roman conquests on the one hand and the barbarian inroads on the other. The colony grew rapidly, and in honor of its founder, the name of the imperial city was changed to *Constantinople*.

For sixty-five years this city remained the capital of the Roman empire, although from 364 to 378 the brothers, Valentinian and Valens, were joint rulers, the former having his court at Milan, the latter at Constantinople. Theodosius the Great (379-395), before his death, divided his dominions between his two sons, Honorius and Arcadius, and the latter became the first of the Byzantine emperors. The dividing line on the west ran southward from Pesth, and followed the Danube eastward to its mouth.

The empire also included Asia Minor, the province of Oriens, or Syria, on the eastern shore of the Mediterranean, and Egypt, besides numerous islands, and for a time the southern part of Italy and a portion of Sicily. Its territory was gradually diminished by Asiatic invasion and conquest, until just before its final fall it embraced scarcely more than the capital city and its suburbs. Until the fall of Rome (476) the Byzantine emperors were busied in suppressing the uprisings of their Gothic allies and defending their dominions from invading hordes of Goths, Huns, and Vandals. Frequently they purchased safety by diverting the attention of the barbarians to the provinces of the Western empire.

During the reign of Theodosius II (408-450) the regency was secured (415) by his sister, the princess Pulcheria, and retained even after he reached his majority. Under the title of Augusta she gave the empire an able administration, carrying on a success-

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ROME—  
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barians  
Saves  
Byzan-  
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 EMPIRE  
 —

ful war against the Persians, and recovering for Valentinian III the Western empire, in return for which service the Byzantine territory received concessions to the westward. The ravages of Attila and the Huns in Thrace and Macedonia were averted only by the payment of annual tribute. On the death of Theodosius (450) Pulcheria was called to the throne, the first woman to enjoy this dignity. She wedded Marcian, whose successful reign continued four years after the reign of his remarkable wife (450–457).

Leo I, a hitherto almost unknown Thracian, succeeded, the coronation being for the first time performed by the Christian clergy. He assisted in the defense of Rome against the Vandals, and became very popular in the West. His successor, Zeno the Isaurian (474–491), was driven from his capital by Basiliscus, but regained the throne. His empire was threatened by Theodoric and the Goths, but the peril was averted by large presents, and the invaders were induced to march westward to Italy. During Zeno's reign occurred the disastrous fire at Constantinople, by which the library, with more than 100,000 manuscripts of classical literature, was destroyed. Anastasius (491–518) built the famous "long walls" across the peninsula, to protect Constantinople from the inroads of the Bulgarians.

Era of  
 Jus-  
 tinian

Justin I (518–27) was succeeded by his nephew, the famous Justinian I (527–65), under whom the Byzantine empire enjoyed the most glorious period of its existence, known as the "Era of Justinian." His conquests were due to his renowned General Belisarius, one of the great commanders of the world's history, whose services were most shamefully rewarded by his ungrateful emperor. The empire of the Vandals in northern Africa was completely destroyed (533), and an immense province restored to the Christians. The Persians were defeated at the Euphrates. Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles were added. Under Narses, a general only less famous than Belisarius, Italy was wrested from the Ostrogoths (555), and again became a part of the empire, being governed by a Greek exarch, whose residence was Ravenna.

Code of  
 Jus-  
 tinian

Justinian's reign is marked by the construction of fortifications, public works, and splendid buildings, among them the great church of St. Sophia. A most important incident of his reign was the introduction of silk manufacture from Asia, ever since a most

valuable industry of Southern Europe. The chief monument for posterity of Justinian's reign is the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, the "Body of the Roman Law," famous in all time as the code of Justinian. It includes all the law knowledge of ancient Rome. His unfortunate successor, Justinus II (565-578), was harassed on one frontier by the Persians, on the other by the terrible Avars. Most of Italy was lost to the Lombards.

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 BYZANTINE  
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In this reign an alliance was made with the Turks beyond the Caspian against the Persians. The reign of Heraclius (610-641) presents a series of overwhelming reverses retrieved by glorious victories. The Persians, under Chosroes II, took Syria, Palestine, and Asia Minor, and the invading hordes advanced to a point within sight of Constantinople. Shrewdly gaining time by a humiliating treaty, Heraclius collected his forces and inflicted a defeat upon the Persians at Issus. The war with the Persians continued four or five years, until finally ended by the terrible battle of Nineveh, in 627, in which the Persians were totally defeated.

War  
 with  
 Persians

The Moslem hordes of Arabs under Mohammed and his successors appeared next. Between 635 and 641, Syria, Judea, and all the African possessions were lost. What remained, however, was more closely united than before, and from this time the empire became distinctly Greek in character. The dynasty of Heraclius ended with Justinian II, assassinated 711.

The  
 Moslem  
 Hordes  
 Appear  
 Next

The seventh and eighth centuries witnessed a peculiar internal religious controversy, which greatly weakened the defense of the Byzantines against their foreign foes. This was the war of the Iconoclasts, most violent under Leo III, the Isaurian (718-741), himself an ardent Iconoclast. The "Image Breakers," as they were called, violently opposed the presence of images in the churches, and the result was the separation of the Greek Church in the latter half of the ninth century from the mother church, henceforth known as the Roman Catholic Church. The formal separation, however, did not occur until the excommunication of the Greek Church, 1054. Leo's position on this question ended the Byzantine rule in Italy (728). Leo's successor, Constantine V (741-755), was also a zealous Iconoclast, and closed many monasteries and convents.

Separation of  
 Greek  
 and  
 Roman  
 Churches

Image-worship was restored for a brief period by the Empress Irene, who had obtained the throne by blinding her own son, Con-

DIVISION III  
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stantine VI, for whom she was guardian (797). She was ambitious to marry Charlemagne, and thus reunite the Eastern and Western empires, but her plan was not supported. During the reign of Leo V (813–20) the Bulgarians overran Thrace, and laid siege to Constantinople, but were finally repulsed. The Saracens captured Crete and Sicily (824–27). Under Michael III (842–67), who reigned first under the guardianship of his mother, Theodora, the images were finally restored in the Greek Church (842). But other differences had arisen which led to the separation noted above. The Russians now first appear as enemies of the empire.

Spread of  
 Chris-  
 tianity

The Macedonian dynasty (867–1057) was founded by Basil I, during whose reign the Saracens conquered Sicily and ravaged the Peloponnesus. His son, Leo II, the philosopher (886–911), called in the Turks to aid against the Saracens, and thus the former paved the way for future conquests. In the middle of the tenth century, during the reign of Constantine VII (911–59), Russian and Hungarian princes were baptized at Constantinople, married Christian wives, and carried the gospel to their peoples. Under Basil II (976–1025) the Bulgarian kingdom was overthrown, and that country became a Greek province (1018), remaining so until 1186.

Turks  
 Appear  
 in  
 Asia  
 Minor

About the middle of the eleventh century the Seljuk Turks became threatening, and in Italy the Byzantine possessions were nearly all seized by the Normans. Isaac, the first of the Comneni, reigned 1057–59. Under his successors the inroads of the Seljuks became more frequent, and by 1078 they had conquered nearly all of Asia Minor.

The  
 Crusades

The steady advance of the Mohammedan power alarmed all Christian Europe, and during the reign of Alexis Comnenus, 1081–1118, began the wonderful movement of allied Christendom known as the crusades. As the hosts marched toward Asia Minor via Constantinople the movement could not but have an important influence on the fortunes of the Byzantine empire. Alexis wanted help against the Turks, but the vast numbers that came alarmed him, and their depredations within his territory led to serious conflicts, and finally under later emperors to open hostility. With the second crusade Alexis made a treaty. He agreed to furnish troops, they to hold any conquests as fiefs of the empire, but neither party kept faith. During this period the Normans, under the



Robert Guiscard and his son Bohemond, attacked the Western frontier, but finally made peace. Manuel Comnenus (1143-80) was victorious over the sultan of Iconium and Raymond of Toulouse, the Christian prince of Antioch. The son of Isaac II (1185-95), who had been dethroned by Alexis III (1195-1203), asked aid of the crusaders, who captured Constantinople (1203) and restored Isaac. He and his son were put to death the next year, and in April, 1204, the city was again taken by the crusaders, who estab-

DIVISION III  
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 Crusaders Capture Constantinople



INTERIOR, SAN PRASSADE, ROME

lished the Latin empire of Roumania (1204-61), with Count Baldwin of Flanders as first emperor.

Empire of Roumania Established

The empire was cut up into various kingdoms, duchies, and fiefs, divided among the French and Venitians. Boniface of Montferrat received the kingdom of Thessalonica, including Macedonia and part of Greece, Venice, the lands along the Adriatic and the Ægean, also Crete and Eubœa. Athens and Bœotia were made a duchy.

In Asia Minor the Greek empire survived, and the capital was located at Nicæa, with Theodore Lascaris as emperor. With the aid of the Bulgarians the Greeks defeated Baldwin (1206). The

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latter's successor, Henry, was successful against the allies, and made peace with the Byzantines. Jean de Brienne (1228–37) titular king of Jerusalem, ruled as regent for Baldwin II, and saved Constantinople from an attack of the allied Bulgarians and Greeks. Finally in 1261 the emperor of Nicæa, Michael Palæologus, with the aid of the Genoese navy (Genoa being the hated rival of Venice), captured Constantinople. The Latin empire now vanished, but many of the principalities remained.

Michael (1261–82) founded the dynasty of the Palæologi, which lasted until 1453. He made fruitless efforts to reunite the Greek and the Latin churches. His son, Adronicus II (1282–1328), hired Catalan troops to aid in repelling the Turks, but in the following reign they took Nicæa and Nicodemia (1339). In 1361 the sultan Amurath took Adrianople, and afterward conquered Macedonia and part of Albania, whereupon the emperor, John (1341–91), acknowledged himself his vassal, and agreed to pay tribute. Bajazet, the successor of Amurath, took Philadelphia in Asia Minor, and later besieged Constantinople. In 1400 he was again before the city, when the invasion of the Turkish empire by the Tartar hordes under Tamerlane called him back to Asia. During this time and the internal quarrels among the Turks after the death of Bajazet, the emperor Manuel (1391–1425) regained some of the lost ground, but in 1422 Amurath II appeared before Constantinople; Turkish quarrels, however, once more saved the city. In this siege cannon were for the first time used in Eastern wars.

Constantinople  
 Being  
 Gradually  
 Cut Off

Manuel's successor, John VI (1425–48), tried to effect a reconciliation of the churches, hoping for a crusade in his behalf. At the Council of Florence a reunion was actually proclaimed, but it was never effected, and was without political results. By 1444 Amurath had taken all but the city and suburbs of Constantinople, and these he generously allowed the emperor to enjoy during the remainder of his life. On John's death, his brother, Constantine XIII (1448–53), appealed to the West for aid, but with insignificant result.

Mohammed II  
 Takes  
 Constantinople  
 1453

The Turks attacked Constantinople April 6, 1453, with an army of 400,000 men under sultan Mohammed II. The brave garrison of 8,000 held out until May 29, when the city was finally taken, Constantine, the last of the Byzantine emperors, falling in the thick of the fight. The surviving inhabitants were sold into

slavery, Christianity was exterminated, and on the dome of St. Sophia's the cross was replaced by the Moslem crescent.

The various principalities and islands were conquered by 1461, and the last vestige of the Byzantine empire had disappeared. But it had not existed in vain; for all through the Dark Ages, when the Roman civilization of western Europe had succumbed to the barbarians, the precious legacy of the ancients was guarded and preserved for the modern world. And furthermore the Byzantine empire stood as a bulwark against the barbaric hordes of Asia until the growing nations gathered strength to withstand their onsets. When we realize that without it, all that is best in the world's past would have been lost, all that is best in modern civilization retarded for hundreds of years, then only is the true significance of the Byzantine empire understood.

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HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE

THE Holy Roman Empire was the official denomination of the German empire from 962 down to 1806, when Francis II, of Hapsburg resigned the imperial title. The Western Roman empire came to an end in 476 A. D.; Charlemagne sought to reconstitute it when he was crowned emperor at Rome by Pope Leo III, in 800. But the reconstituted empire fell again into fragments and chaos, till Otho the Great succeeded in making a great monarchy again, and was crowned emperor by Pope John XII, at Rome in 962. Thenceforward for more than eight centuries there was an unbroken succession of German princes claiming, and in a measure, exercising the powers and privileges of Roman emperors. The name of "Roman emperor" was carefully retained; "Holy" was added to signify that the empire was now Christian; and "of the German nation" was sometimes appended to indicate the new nationality that dominated over the old imperial realms. The emperor was the official head of the Christian world, the temporal colleague and rival of the pope. The new German empire (since 1871) calls itself simply German, and has dropped all claim to be either "Roman" or "Holy."

Holy  
 Roman  
 Empire



## THE HISTORY OF ITALY

ALSO VENICE AND SAN MARINO

[*Authorities:* The principal materials for Italian history during the Middle Ages will be found in Muratori's *Reum Italicarum Scriptores* (25 vols. 1723-51); and in the *Archivio storico Italiano* (vols. i-xvi. 1838-51). See also Guicciardini's *Istoria d' Italia*, continued to 1814 by Carlo Botta; Muratori's *Annali d' Italia*; Cesare Balbo *Sommario*; Bryce's *Holy Roman Empire*; and Villari, *Storia politica d' Italia* (8 vols. 1883). Among books dealing with separate periods may be mentioned Hodgkin's *Italy and her Invaders* (from the fall of the empire to 553, vols. ii-iv, 1830-85); Sismondi's *Républiques Italiennes du Moyen-âge*; Troya's *Storia d' Italia del Medio Evo* (17 vols. 1839-59); Reuchlin's *Geschichte Italiens von der Gründung der regierenden Dynastien* (4 vols. 1859-73); Maurice, *The Revolutionary Movement of 1848-49* (1887); and Niseo's *Storia civile*. Symonds's *Renaissance in Italy*; Von Ranke, *History of the Popes*.]



**I**TALY is a kingdom of southern Europe, comprising the boot-shaped Italian peninsula and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia.

The modern history of Italy begins with the fall of the Western empire (A. D. 476). Romulus Augustus, its last feeble emperor, was dethroned by his German guards. Odoacer, their leader, assumed the title of *King of Italy*, and thus this land was separated from the Roman empire.

The senate by Odoacer's command recognized Zeno as head of the Western as well as the Eastern empire, and he in turn bestowed on the Teuton leader the dignity of "patrician."

For thirteen years Odoacer's rule was undisputed; but in 489 Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, invaded Italy with a commission from the Eastern emperor, besieged Herulian in Ravenna, and in 493, after his surrender, slew him with his own hand. In spite of this bloody beginning, Theodoric's rule, which lasted till 525, was wise and on the whole, just.

Odoacer  
Rules  
Thirteen  
Years

But the Arian \* faith of the conquerors held them and the Italians apart, and when Justinian's general, Belisarius, was sent to reconquer Italy he was welcomed by the colonists of Sicily and the South. From 536 to 553 the war was desperately maintained, the hero on the Gothic side being Totila (541-552). But the valor of the barbarians was outmatched by the generalship of the aged eunuch Narses; and in 553 Teias, the last king of the Goths, was slain in battle, and the descendants of the host who had followed the Amal king into Italy sixty-four years before, now few in number, and sore at heart, were permitted to march back across the Alps.

Italy was now governed from Ravenna for a few years by an exarch or viceroy; but in 568 came an invasion by the Lombard nation, under their king, Alboin, and all the central portion of the peninsula passed from under the sway of Byzantium. Pavia was made the capital of the new kingdom, and the great duchies of Spoleto and Benevento were founded, pressing on Rome and the Greek maritime cities of the South. Yet the Lombards were not strong enough to occupy the whole peninsula, and Rome and most of the coast towns, as well as the islands, remained to the emperor. The invaders imposed on the country a sort of feudal system, and, being Arians, treated the Italians with great harshness, until Gregory the Great effected their conversion to orthodoxy.

From this period the popes for a time appear as the champions of the national cause. Leo the Isaurian's decree against the worship of images was met by Gregory II's declaration of Roman independence; and in 726-56 the popes succeeded in driving out the exarch and checking, with the help of the Franks, the encroachments of the Lombards. Pepin twice crossed the Alps, compelled the Lombard king to yield up the exarchate and the Pentapolis, which he had conquered, and presented them to the pope in 756;

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\* The Arians were so called from their adoption of the religious views of Arius of Alexandria (270-336) who disavowed the dogma of the Trinity, and denied that Christ, the Word, is coequal and consubstantial with God the Father. In fact, he maintained that Christ is not God at all, but was a human being, born of human parents. The religious views of Arius were condemned in the First General Council at Nice in 325. Arius, in support of his views said: "If God is one, all-wise, all-powerful, and everywhere present, it is a contradiction of terms to suppose a second, possessed of the same attributes. In the time of Constantine the Arians were very numerous. They withdrew from the Trinitarians, built their own churches, and ordained their own bishops. They were all declared heretics at Nice in 325.

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Lombards  
 Invade  
 Italy

Popes  
 Win  
 Temporal  
 Power

Arians

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 Charle-  
 magne  
 Emperor  
 of Rome

this gift was the nucleus of the temporal sovereignty of the bishop's of Rome.

In 774 Pepin's son, Charlemagne, who had been summoned to the aid of the pope, deposed Desiderius, the last Lombard king, and added his dominions to his own; in 800 he was crowned emperor of the Romans. Meanwhile the Lombard duchies in the South were still independent, and Sicily and a number of free cities in southern Italy, as well as Venice, recognized the rule of the



OLD GATE AND TRIUMPHAL ARCH, PORTA SAN GALLO, FLORENCE

Saracens  
 Overrun  
 Italy

Byzantines. But in the ninth century the Saracens subdued Sicily, landed on the mainland, and even threatened Rome. Leo IV fortified the suburb on the north bank of the Tiber, which after him was called the Leonine city, and called to his aid Louis II, Charlemagne's great-grandson, who, with the help of the Eastern emperor, checked the progress of the Saracens for a time. But after the death of Louis, the infidels compelled the helpless pope to pay tribute; and the Greeks, profiting by the weakness of Charlemagne's successors, recovered most of southern Italy, and held it, under an officer entitled catapan, till 1043.

Eight kings of the Carolingian line were acknowledged in northern Italy, their rule ending with Charles the Fat in 887. Then, till 961, succeeded ten so-called Italian sovereigns — dukes of Spoleto and Friuli, the German Arnulf, Hugh of Provence, Berengar, marquis of Ivrea, and others. Under their feeble sway the power of the feudal nobles, and within the cities, of the bishops, waxed great; the papal chair was occupied by men of infamous life, and Magyars, Saracens, and Northmen overran the country, turning wide tracts into a desolate wilderness. In 951 Berengar II was compelled to do homage to the German king, Otto of Saxony. He was suffered to rule until 961, and then deposed; and in 962 Otto was crowned as king of Italy at Milan, and as emperor at Rome.

From this time the right to the crown of the Roman empire (two centuries later it was the HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE) was held to accompany the German kingship. Except in name, there was no longer an Italian kingdom; and, with its foreign emperors occupied for the most part beyond the Alps, the country was in some degree left masterless. Its division into separate states was now but a question of time.

Moved by the scandals of the papacy and the constant revolts in the city, Otto took the election of the popes away from the Romans, chose a pope of his own, and put the city in his charge. Elsewhere he encouraged the rise of the communes as a check upon the great vassals. The towns had already been permitted to raise walls as a defense against the barbarians, and now the chief cities were freed from the jurisdiction of the counts. The death of Otto III in 1002 was followed by a dispute for the crown; Rome, the papacy, and the city, fell again into the hands of the Tusculan counts, while the Lombard cities gained in importance as their alliance was sought by one side or the other. Milan supported Henry of Bavaria, who had been elected in Germany; and he severely punished her rival, Pavia, who had espoused the cause of the Lombard Ardoin. Henry died in 1024, and was succeeded by Conrad of Franconia, who was invited into Italy and crowned with the iron crown at Milan by Heribert, the archbishop.

Under this prelate, Milan advanced greatly in power and independence. The citizens had already formed themselves into a *parlamento*, and, while Heribert lived, the power of the smaller counts

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Feudal  
Lords  
Hold  
PowerHoly  
Roman  
EmpireOtto  
Chooses  
PopeMilan  
Gains  
Power

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who had now come to dwell in the city was bridled. The other Lombard cities also were rising into some degree of independence. Pisa and Genoa, besides Venice \* (which acknowledged the nominal sovereignty of the Eastern emperor), were becoming great by their command of fleets; and they succeeded to the rich carrying trade of the Mediterranean, after the fall of the Greek cities in the south before the Normans.

During the first half of the eleventh century a body of Norman adventurers had gained a firm footing in Apulia, which they ultimately conquered as a countship for themselves. The pope, Leo IX, marched against them, and was defeated and taken prisoner by Robert Guiscard, at Civitella (1053); and Guiscard obtained from him the investiture† of his present and future con-

\* See chapter on "Venice," Vol. III, p. 1201.

Investi-  
 ture,  
 Feudal  
 and Ec-  
 clesias-  
 tical

† Investiture in feudal and ecclesiastical history, means the act of giving corporal possession of a manor, office, or benefice, accompanied by a certain ceremonial, such as the delivery of a branch, a banner, or an instrument of office, more or less designed to signify the power or authority which it is supposed to convey. The contest about ecclesiastical investitures is interwoven with the whole course of mediæval history. The system of feudal tenure had become so universal that it affected even the land held by ecclesiastics. Accordingly, ecclesiastics, who, in virtue of the ecclesiastical office which they held, came into possession of lands, began to be regarded as becoming by the very fact feudatory to the suzerain of these lands; and the suzerains thought themselves entitled to claim, in reference to these personages, the same rights which they enjoyed over the other feudatories of their domains. Among these rights was that of granting solemn investiture. In the case of bishops, abbots, and other church dignitaries the form of investiture consisted in the delivery of a pastoral staff or crosier, and the placing a ring upon the finger; and as these badges of office were emblematic,—the one of the spiritual care of souls, the other of the espousals, as it were, between the pastor and his church or monastery, the assumption of this right by the lay suzerains became a subject of constant and angry complaint on the part of the church. On the part of the suzerains it was replied that they did not claim to grant by this right the spiritual powers of the office, their sanction being solely to grant possession of its temporalities. But the church party urged that the ceremonial in itself involved the granting of spiritual powers; insomuch that, in order to prevent the clergy from electing to a see when vacant, it was the practise of the emperors to take possession of the crosier and ring, until it should be their own pleasure to grant investiture to their favorites. The disfavor in which the practice had long been held found its most energetic expression in the person of Gregory VII, who having, in the year 1074, enacted most stringent measures for the repression of simony, proceeded, in 1075, to condemn, under excommunication, the practise of investiture, as almost necessarily connected with simony, or leading to it. But a pope of the same century, Urban II, went further, and (1095) absolutely and entirely forbade not alone lay investiture, but the taking of an oath of fealty to a lay suzerain by an ecclesiastic. In the twelfth century the pope, Pascal II, agreed to surrender the possessions and royalties of the church on condition of the emperor (Henry V) giving up his claim to investiture. This treaty, however, never had any practical effect; nor was the contest



quests, which he was to hold as a fief of the holy see. Robert extended his power on the mainland, and took the title of Duke of Apulia and Calabria in 1059. In 1060–90 his brother Roger conquered Sicily from the Saracens; in 1127 the family's dominions in Apulia, Calabria, and Sicily were united by his son Roger, who in 1130 assumed the title of "king of Sicily."

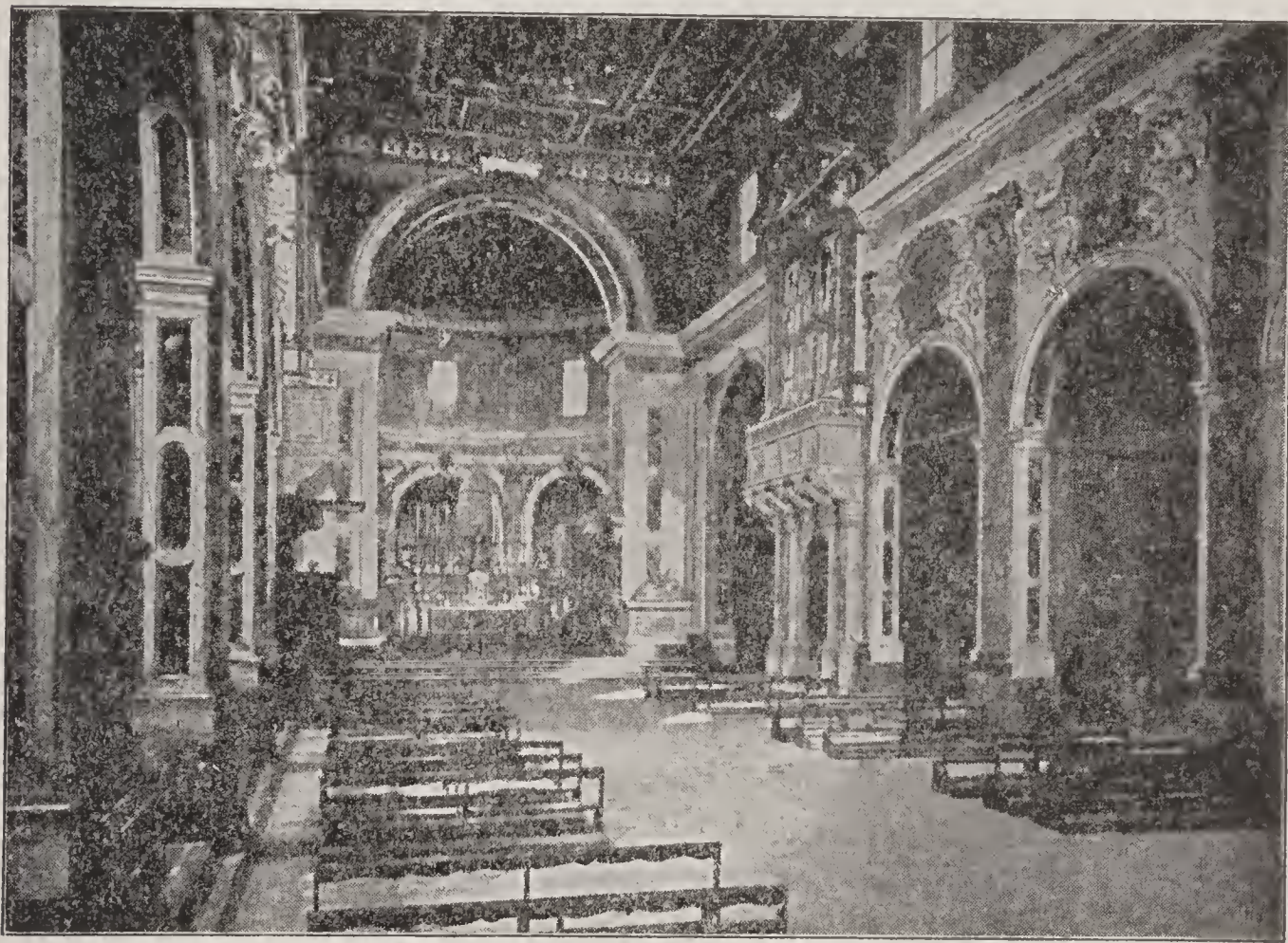
Meanwhile the fierce struggle over investitures had been fought out between emperor and pope. When the archdeacon Hildebrand became Pope Gregory VII (1073) he enforced the celibacy

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INTERIOR, CHURCH OF S. S. ANNUNZIATA

of the clergy, as Leo IX had already endeavored to do; and in 1075 he condemned the investiture of ecclesiastics by lay lords.

finally adjusted until the celebrated concordat of Worms in 1122, in which the emperor agreed to give up the form of investiture with the ring and pastoral staff, to grant to the clergy the right of free elections, and to restore all the possessions of the Church of Rome which had been seized either by himself or by his father; while the pope, on his part, consented that the elections should be held in the presence of the emperor or his official, but with a right of appeal to the provincial synod; that investiture might be given by the emperor, but only by the touch of the scepter; and that the bishops and other church dignitaries should faithfully discharge all the feudal duties which belonged to their principality.

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Otto the Great and Henry III had appointed and deposed popes, and therefore this latter decree led to a quarrel with Henry IV.

At a diet in 1076 Gregory was deposed. The pope replied by excommunicating the king, who was compelled by a rebellion in Saxony to submit, and do penance at Canossa, the castle of the Countess Matilda of Tuscany, the pope's ally. Henry, however, soon renewed the strife, appointed an antipope, and in 1084 took Rome, was crowned, and besieged Gregory in the fortress of St. Angelo. Thence the pontiff was delivered by Guiscard, who drove the emperor off, and carried Gregory away from his riotous subjects to end his days at Salerno.

Cardinals  
to Elect  
Popes

The struggle, however, was carried on by Gregory's successors, till by the concordat of Worms (1122) the emperor yielded the main principle at issue, surrendering to the cardinals the election of the pope, who was still to possess the right of conferring the imperial crown. By the death of the Countess Matilda, too, in 1115, the church had inherited her vast domains, and, although the emperor took possession of them, the popes retained their claim, to be revived in after years.

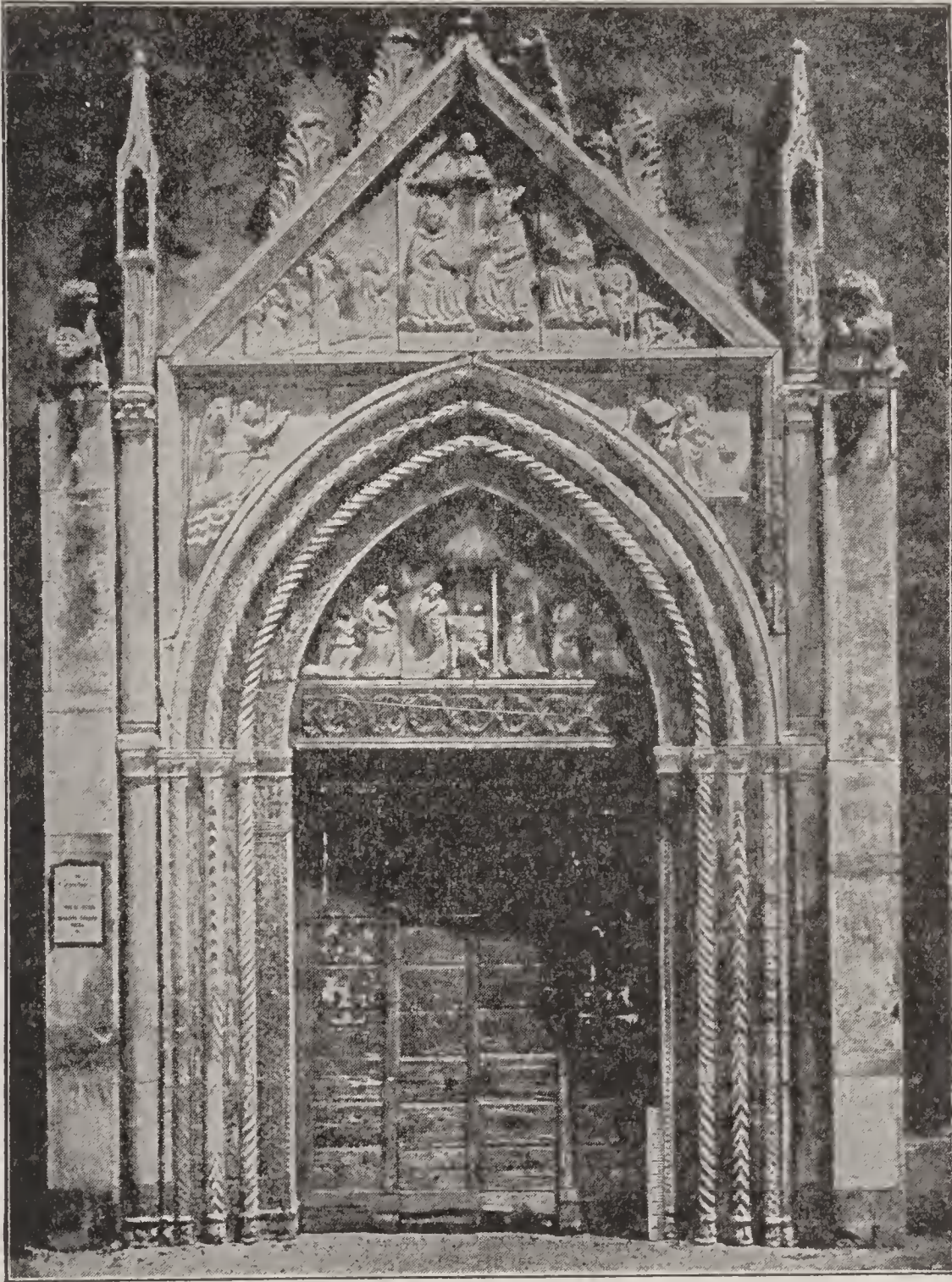
From this long struggle the northern cities emerged strengthened and practically autonomous. They still belonged to the empire; but they were governed by their own magistrates, called consuls, aided by an oligarchical council; and they enjoyed, and unhappily took frequent advantage of, the right to make war on their own account. The quarrel of the Guelphs and Ghibellines arose in Germany at this time, and before long these names were heard everywhere in Italy; but here they stood not alone for the pope's party and the emperor's, but also for the burning jealousy and hatred of rival cities, each struggling to rise at the cost of its neighbors.

Frederick's  
Cam-  
paigns in  
Italy

Arnold of Brescia for a time established a republic in Rome, but it was suppressed by Frederick Barbarossa in 1154. In that year Frederick, who had been elected in 1152, came into Italy to take away the self-government of the towns, and reduce them to their former subjection to the emperor. After punishing several hostile cities, he went on to Rome and was crowned by Adrian IV (Nicholas Breakspear), the only pope of English birth; but he soon quarreled with him, and on Adrian's death supported an antipope. In 1158 Frederick returned from Germany, and com-

pelled Milan to surrender, after a month's siege. An attempt to appoint their consuls drove the Milanese into a second revolt in 1159; but Frederick was delayed by the heroic defence of Crema, and it was not till May, 1161, that he again invested Milan. The

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DOOR BASILICA OF ST. JOHN THE EVANGELIST TWELFTH, CENTURY

city held out till March, 1162, and was then destroyed by the vindictive imperialists, and the people driven from the ruins.

Soon afterward the cities of the Veronese territory formed a league of defense against Frederick which he was unable to crush. In 1167 he besieged the pope, Alexander III, in the Coliseum; but the latter escaped to Benevento, while a terrible pestilence fell

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upon the German camp, and Frederick with difficulty led the remnant of his army north to Pavia. Only this city and the Marquis of Montferrat in all north Italy had held back from the great Lombard league, which had meanwhile been formed, and had restored the Milanese to their city.

In 1168 Frederick fled in disguise across the Alps; and in the same year the confederates founded a new city on the plain between Pavia and Montferrat, to be a check on these two. The league named it Alessandria, in honor of their ally the pope. Its ditch and rampart of earth held Frederick at bay all through the winter of 1174–75, till he was forced to raise the siege. Finally, the crushing defeat at Legnano (May 29, 1176), from which field he hardly escaped with his life, made him willing to treat for peace.

In 1177, at Venice, the emperor came to terms with the pope, and agreed to a six years' truce with the Lombard towns; in 1183 a permanent peace was ratified, the cities retaining their right of war and of self-government.

Since the battle of Civitella the Normans had continued faithful allies of the popes, and it was with the object of depriving the latter of this powerful support that Frederick now had his son Henry VI married to the heiress of Sicily. Frederick died in 1190, and in 1194 Henry was recognized as king, and the Norman rule in southern Italy came to an end. He died in 1197, and the next year his wife, who had acknowledged the pope as overlord, died also, leaving their infant son Frederick to the guardianship of Innocent III.

Papal  
 Territory  
 Greatly  
 In-  
 creased

The papal territory had now become extensive, and the establishment of a Latin empire at Constantinople (1204), during the fourth crusade, added to the prestige of the Roman see.

Venice

But the chief gainer by the capture of the Eastern capital was Venice, who, as a reward for lending her fleet, was presented by the victorious crusaders with a large share of the divided empire, and was able to occupy at least a number of islands and coast territory; she was now supreme in the Levant,

Frederick  
 II

Frederick II, who was crowned emperor in 1220, was king of Italy, Sicily, Sardinia, Germany, Burgundy, and Jerusalem. So formidable a prince made both popes and communes uneasy. He was excommunicated by Gregory IX in 1227, because he delayed his departure on a promised crusade; and afterward, when he had

gone to the East, while he was crowning himself at Jerusalem his enemies were still busy at home. The pope, whose hands were greatly strengthened by the newly founded Franciscan\* and Dominican † orders, stirred up the Lombard cities to revolt, and, after Frederick had crushed the Milanese at Cortenuovo (1237), drew Venice and Genoa into the league against him. Frederick's cause was upheld in northern Italy by Ezzelimo da Romano, infamous for his cruelties.

In 1245 Innocent IV, the emperor's personal enemy, had him declared dethroned by a council convened at Lyons; and after five years of harassing anxiety, his life the object of constant plots, Frederick died in December, 1250. The cause of his son and grandson was upheld by his natural son Manfred, who in 1258 became king of Sicily. There was no abatement of fury in the fierce struggle between Guelphs and Ghibellines, ‡ but the balance of success so far inclined toward Manfred after the battle of Monteperto (1260), which restored Florence to the Ghibellines, that

\* The Franciscans were the members of a religious order established by St. Francis of Assisi about 1210. They are also called Minorities, or Lesser Brethren, which was the name given them by their founder in token of humility, and sometimes Gray Friars from the color of their garment. The order was distinguished by vows of absolute poverty and renunciation of the pleasures of the world, and was intended to serve the church by its care of the religious state of the people. Some idea of the extraordinary extension of this remarkable institute may be formed from the statement that in the dreadful plague of the Black Death in the fourteenth century 124,000 Franciscans fell victims to their zeal for the care of the sick and for the spiritual ministrations of the dying.

† The Dominicans were an order of preaching friars founded at Toulouse in 1215 by Dominic de Guzman. In 1233 the function of Inquisitors was added. They had several houses in Italy, Spain, Portugal, France, Germany, and England. In 1218 the Dominicans of Paris were called Jacobins, because their convent was in the Rue St. Jacques. They sustained a long rivalry with the Franciscans, but were suppressed in France in 1790 by the national assembly. Their outer dress is a black garment with a scapulary and capuchin of the same cloth. They also carry a rosary suspended from the girdle.

‡ Guelphs and Ghibellines were names given to the papal and imperial factions who destroyed the peace of Italy from the twelfth to the end of the fifteenth century (the invasion of Charles VIII of France in 1495). The origin of the name is ascribed to the contest for the imperial crown between Conrad of Hohenstaufen, duke of Swabia, lord of Wiblingen (hence Ghibelin), and Henry, nephew of Welf, or Guelf, duke of Bavaria, in 1138. The former was successful; but the popes and several Italian cities took the side of his rival. *Hie Guelf* and *Hie Gibelin* are said to have been used as war cries in 1140, at a battle before Weinsberg, in Wurtemberg, when Guelf of Bavaria was defeated by the emperor Conrad IV, who came to help the rival duke Leopold. It is stated traditionally, that the emperor condemned all the men to death, but permitted the women to bring out whatever they most valued; on which they carried out their husbands on their shoulders.

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Charles  
of  
AnjouThe  
Francis-  
cansThe  
Domini-  
cansGuelphs  
and  
Ghibel-  
lines

DIVISION III Urban IV invited Charles of Anjou into Italy to lead the Guelphic party.

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In 1266 Manfred was defeated and slain, and the Swabian line came to an end with his nephew Conradin, who was beheaded at Naples. The Guelphs were again supreme; but Gregory X restored their banished rivals to their cities, and for a time made the two parties live in peace. Charles, who received the kingdom of Sicily as a gift of the popes, had promised that it should never be held along with the empire; and now, as a final check to the Angevin's possible ambition, the pope brought to a close the dispute which had kept the empire without a head, and crowned Rudolph of Hapsburg, who was elected in 1273.

Haps-  
burg

Temporal  
Power of  
the Popes

This emperor in 1278 recognized the popes as temporal sovereigns, and their power was henceforth established over Rome and the Campagna, Emilia, the Romagna, and the March of Ancona; and, as Rudolph left Italy to itself, the Guelphic party was enabled to strengthen its power, and to crush such hostile cities as Pisa.

Charles lost Sicily by the rebellion which began in the Sicilian Vespers,\* in 1282; and the island gave itself to the House of Aragon, which, as the popes were hostile, necessarily became Ghibelline. Meanwhile in Tuscany the triumphant Guelphs had become broken up into factions, the Neri and Bianchi (Blacks and Whites), the former violent Guelphs, and the latter at first moderate Guelphs, until the fierce animosity of their opponents made them Ghibellines. For in 1301 Charles of Valois, who had been called in by Boniface VIII to help the Neri, entered Florence, and gave the Bianchi up to the cruel vengeance of

Dante  
Banished

Sicilian  
Vespers

\* Sicilian Vespers, the name given to the massacre of the French in Sicily, on Easter Monday (March 30), 1282, the signal for the commencement of which was the first stroke of the vesper bell. Charles of Anjou, brother of Louis IX, of France, had deprived the Hohenstaufen dynasty of Naples and Sicily; but his cruelty and tyranny, his oppressive taxation, and the brutality of his followers excited among the Sicilians the deadliest animosity. So that on that evening the inhabitants of Palermo, enraged (according to the common story) at a gross outrage offered by a French soldier to a young Sicilian bride, suddenly rose against their oppressors, and put to the sword every man, woman, and child to the number of 8,000. This example was followed by Messina and the other towns, and the massacre became general throughout the island; the French were hunted like wild beasts, and dragged even from the churches. The sixth hundredth anniversary of the Sicilian Vespers was celebrated with much enthusiasm in 1882, Garibaldi (shortly before his death) having come to Palermo on purpose to be present, though he was too feeble to take part in the ceremonies.

their enemies; among those banished from the city was the poet Dante.

Under Clement V, the seat of the papacy was removed, in 1309, to Avignon, where it remained for the next seventy years. In the following year the new emperor, Henry VII, came into Italy to revive the Ghibelline party, and to restore peace and order. The task, however, was now beyond the power of any German master. Henry died in August, 1313, having effected no lasting change except in Milan, which he had handed over to the Ghibelline Visconti.

We have now reached a period when the cities of northern Italy had fallen under the sway of tyrants or despots. The feudal power of the rural counts had gradually been lessened by the communes, until the nobles had become citizens. But they merely exchanged their castles for fortified palaces in the cities. At the root of the wars fought between those in Italy who called themselves Guelphs and Ghibellines, was the question whether the democracy or the aristocracy was to be supreme in the cities. Florence as yet preserved her republican independence; but, besides a hereditary oligarchy in Venice, despots were now established in all the great northern cities, each of which was glad to submit to a master who would put an end to the strife that had hampered its commercial prosperity. Titles were bought from the German emperor or assumed, courts were formed, and armies were hired; for wars were now waged in another fashion than that which had prevailed in Barbarossa's time.

In the fourteenth century, bands of mercenaries, or companies of adventurers, made their appearance, selling their services to the highest bidder, or plundering the lands of the weaker states. Bound by a common profession, they were chiefly formidable to the taxpayer; and, for that matter, in their commercial prosperity the cities were at this time receiving the reward for which they had bartered their independence. Trade and manufactures were flourishing, art and literature were encouraged at the courts, and freedom was forgotten in present comfort and inglorious well-being. The result of the self-indulgent policy now begun was seen two centuries later, when Italy lay helpless beneath the feet of contending foreign armies.

The fourteenth and fifteenth centuries witnessed the division of

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Despots  
Rule  
Northern  
ItalyIntellectual  
Awaken-  
ing

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 —

Italy  
 Divided

Florence  
 an Oli-  
 garchy

Venice  
 as a  
 Power

Italy among five principal powers: the kingdom of Naples, the duchy of Milan, the republics of Florence and Venice, and the papacy. In Naples, the Angevin line came to an end in 1435 with Joan II. She was succeeded by Alfonso V, of Aragon, and the two Sicilies, separate since 1282, were again united. At his death in 1458, however, Sicily remained to the kings of Aragon, while Naples was bequeathed to his natural son. In Milan the powerful Visconti dynasty survived till 1447. Archbishop Gian Visconti, who died in 1354, made himself master of more than twenty cities, and extended the family's power over the greater part of northern Italy; and these domains were reunited by his grand nephew, Gian Galeazzo, who purchased the title of duke, made himself lord as far as the borders of Venice, and was threatening Florence when the plague carried him off in 1402. The Visconti's possessions were confined within narrower limits under his son Filippo, and were seized in 1450 by Francesco Sforza, a famous general, who had married Filippo's natural daughter, and who proved a wise and able ruler. Florence had submitted in 1342 to a despot in Walter of Brienne, the titular Duke of Athens; but this soldier of fortune was expelled in 1343, and the city was ruled until 1434, except during a brief revolution, by an oligarchy.

The presidency of the republic, practically the dictatorship, was then secured by Cosimo de Medici, who for this end had courted the good-will of the common people; and his undefined power passed at his death in 1464 to his son, and reached its culmination under his famous grandson, Lorenzo the Magnificent. Florence was already mistress of a great part of Tuscany, and Cosimo's alliance with Francesco Sforza helped to secure her position as one of the five great powers.

Venice, which had until this period stood aloof from Italian politics, was in the hands of a hereditary grand council. Thirty years of contest with Genoa for supremacy in the Mediterranean had ended in a victory for the republic of St. Mark in 1381. The capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, made Venice, which had been gradually stripped of her possessions in the Levant, now at last an Italian state; and her territory on the mainland was greatly extended under Francesco Foscari (1457) and his successors in the dogeship, although in 1477 a Turkish army ravaged her fields to within sight of St. Mark's.







RAPHAEL'S SISTINE MADONNA

Rome, except during Rienzi's brief rule, had obeyed her bishops, exiled at Avignon. In 1377 the papacy returned from the "Babylonish Captivity," and, in spite of the weakness caused by the Great Schism,\* the spiritual sovereign also was soon found among the despots. The schism ended in 1449; and Nicholas V was enabled to establish firmly the temporal power of the papacy.

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Italy now enjoyed a term of prosperity and comparative peace, broken only as Venice enlarged her borders, or by the family ambition of the popes. But in 1494 Charles VIII of France was induced by the Milanese regent, Lodovico Sforza, to invade Italy, and had himself crowned king of Naples. Meanwhile Lodovico had murdered and succeeded his nephew, and he now raised Lom-



MONUMENT TO COLUMBUS, GENOA

bardy against Charles, who with difficulty got back to France

\*The Great Schism was the time when there were two or more contemporary popes, one chosen by French cardinals and the other by Italian. On the death of Gregory XI the Italians chose Urban VI, a Neapolitan, for his successor; but the French cardinals, who were far the greater number, nominated one of their own countrymen, who was crowned by them as Clement VI, in 1378. Urban held his court at Rome and Clement at Avignon. England, Italy, Bohemia, Germany, Prussia, Poland, and the Scandinavian kingdoms acknowledged the Roman pope; but France, Scotland, Spain, Sicily, and Cyprus acknowledged the French pope. During the time of the schism there were sometimes three contemporary popes, as, for example, Gregory XII, Benedict XIII, Alexander V; and sometimes as many as four, as John XXIII, Gregory XII, Benedict XIII, and Martin V.

The  
 Great  
 Schism

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 Invasion  
 by  
 Charles  
 VIII of  
 France

A  
 Century  
 of Dis-  
 aster for  
 Italy

in 1495. He had caused the expulsion of the Medici, and Florence was again a republic, in which for a time Savonarola's \* influence was all powerful. But, of more consequence than this, Charles's expedition had shown the way to others, and inspired an ambition which, under his immediate ancestors, cost France dear. In 1499 Louis XII subdued Milan; in 1501 Ferdinand the Catholic tricked him out of Naples, which the two had joined to conquer, and once more united the two Sicilies under one crown.

The century thus begun is the most disastrous in Italian history. In northern and central Italy the French armies held their own against the pope and his allies until the year 1512, when their young general, Gaston de Foix, fell in victory before the walls of Ravenna. They were then expelled for the moment; but Italy had no long rest. The rivalry of the emperor Charles V and Francis I, which makes the principal part of European history during this period, filled the land with the clash of foreign arms; while her own rulers striving each to snatch an advantage from the confusion, added to the country's distractions. The papacy was a gainer from the struggle. The conquests of the Borgias passed to the holy see; and Julius II succeeded in humbling Venice, and

Savona-  
 rola

\* Savonarola (1452-1498) was an Italian ecclesiastical reformer, born at Ferrara. In 1482 he was sent to St. Mark's convent at Florence, and began to preach there. He retired into Lombardy, and there his increasing fame as a preacher and theologian induced Lorenzo de Medici to invite him to return to Florence. In 1491 he was elected prior of St. Mark's. Savonarola startled his hearers by foretelling the advent of foreign enemies bringing desolation; and this prediction was considered by the people to have been fulfilled when Charles VIII of France in 1494 invaded Italy. He foretold the death of the pope, the king, and his patron Lorenzo. After the death of Lorenzo and the expulsion of his son Piero, Savonarola put himself at the head of those who demanded a more democratical form of government; and such was now his commanding influence in Florence that he organized the distracted city into a form of republic, with two councils and a governing signory. But in his zeal, not content with revolutionizing Florence, he meditated the reform of the Roman court and of the irregularities of the clergy. To this end he wrote to the Christian princes, declaring that the church was corrupt, and that it was their duty to convoke a general council. Alarmed at this, Alexander VI, who was then pope, excommunicated him in 1497, and the bull was read in the cathedral at Florence. A Franciscan friar challenged Savonarola to test the truth of his divine pretensions by passing with him through the ordeal of fire. This Savonarola declined; scenes of tumult and riot arose; St. Mark's was stormed by an infuriated mob, and Savonarola cast into prison. As the result of the mock trial with torture which followed in 1498, Savonarola, with two of his companions, was strangled and then burned. His writings consist of some theological works, a treatise on the *Government of Florence*, and numerous sermons.

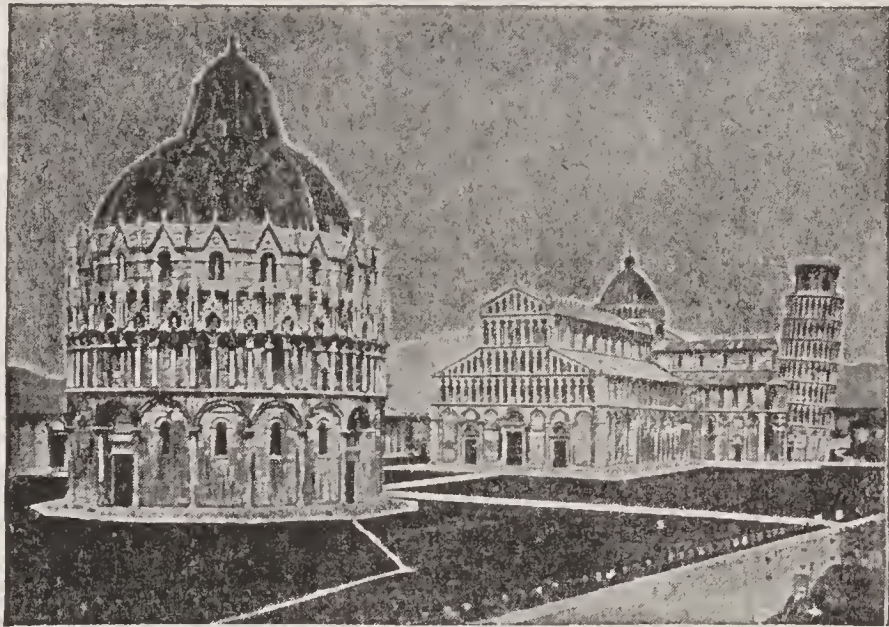
then in driving the French out of Lombardy in 1512. In 1515 Francis regained Milan, but in 1524 his forces were expelled from Italy by the emperor, and in 1525 the French king was taken prisoner at Pavia.

In 1527 occurred the sack of Rome by a body of troops of the empire, Lutherans and Spaniards. The Constable de Bourbon, who had led them, was killed in the assault, and the sack continued for seven dreadful months. In September, the Medicean Clement VII, who had fled to the castle of St. Angelo, was compelled by hunger to surrender. The Medici, who had returned to Florence in 1512, were again driven out, but were restored by arms in 1530. Alexander de Medici received from the emperor,

who was his father-in-law, the title of duke; and in 1570 Cosimo, his successor, was made grand duke of Tuscany by the pope. By the peace of Cambrai (1529) Charles had been left master of Italy; his son Philip became its undisputed lord by the peace

of Chateau-Cambresis (1559), though Venice really, and Genoa, Lucca, and the little republic of San Marino nominally, remained independent. Besides Tuscany, there were the duchies of Modena and Ferrara and of Parma and Piacenza, and the rich States of the Church; Spain herself held all the rest of Italy, save Piedmont, which was restored to the dukes of Savoy in the person of Philip's cousin and general, Emmanuel Filibert. This prince also regained Savoy and the province of Nice, which his family had lost; but he removed his capital to Turin, and his house was henceforth Italian.

The papacy had been strengthened by the founding of the Jesuit order in 1540, and the establishment of the Inquisition;\* and the



BAPTISTRY, CATHEDRAL, AND LEANING TOWER, AT PISA

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Rome  
Sacked

Jesuit  
Order  
Founded

The In-  
quisition

\*The Inquisition, called also "the Holy Office," was a tribunal in the Roman Catholic Church for the discovery, repression, and punishment of heresy, unbelief, and other

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Council of Trent (1545–63) defined the Catholic faith. The territory of the church was further augmented by the absorption of several lapsed fiefs, and the supremacy of the pontiffs was now acknowledged by Venice, who had hitherto recognized no superior

offenses against religion. From the very first establishment of Christianity as the religion of the Roman empire, laws more or less severe existed, as in most of the ancient religions, for the repression and punishment of dissent from the national creed; and the emperors, Theodosius and Justinian, appointed officials called inquisitors, whose special duty it was to discover and prosecute before the civil tribunals offenses of this class. An extraordinary commission was sent by Pope Innocent III into the south of France to aid the local authorities in checking the spread of heresy. The fourth Lateran Council (1215) earnestly impressed both on bishops and magistrates the necessity of increased vigilance against heresy; and a council held at Toulouse directed that in each parish the priests and two or three laymen of good repute should be appointed to examine and report to the bishops all such offenses discovered within the district.

So far, however, there was no permanent court distinct from those of the bishops; but under Innocent IV, in 1248, a special tribunal for the purpose was instituted, the chief direction of which was vested in the then recently established Dominican Order. The Inquisition thus constituted became a general, instead of, as previously, a local tribunal; and it was introduced in succession into Italy, Spain, Germany, and the southern provinces of France. So long, moreover, as this constitution remained it must be regarded as a strictly papal tribunal. Accordingly, over the French and German Inquisition of the following century the popes exercised full authority, receiving appeals against the rigor of local tribunals, and censuring, or even depriving the inquisitor for undue severity. In France the Inquisition was discontinued under Philip the Fair; and though an attempt was made under Henry II to revive it against the Huguenots, the effort was unsuccessful. In Germany, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, the Inquisition came into active operation, and inquisitors for Germany were named at intervals by various popes, as Urban V, Gregory XI, Boniface IX, Innocent VIII, down to the Reformation, when it fell into disuse. In England it was never received, all the proceedings against heresy being reserved to the ordinary tribunals. In Poland, though established in 1327, it had but a brief existence.

It is the history of the Inquisition as it existed in Spain, Portugal, and their dependencies that has absorbed almost entirely the real interest of this painful subject. As an ordinary tribunal similar to those of other countries, it had existed in Spain from an early period. Its functions, however, in these times were little more than nominal; but early in the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, in consequence of the alarms created by the alleged discovery of a plot among the Jews and the Jewish converts—who had been required either to emigrate or to conform to Christianity—to overthrow the government, an application was made to the pope, Sixtus IV, to permit its reorganization (1478); but in reviving the tribunal the crown assumed to itself the right of appointing the inquisitors, and, in truth, of controlling the entire action of the tribunal. From this date forward Catholic writers regard the Spanish Inquisition as a state tribunal, a character which is recognized by Ranke, Guizot, Leo, and even the great anti-papal authority Llorente; and in dissociating the church generally and the Roman see itself from that state tribunal, Catholics refer to the bulls of the pope, Sixtus IV, protesting against it. Notwithstanding this protest, however, the Spanish crown maintained its assumption. Inquisitors were appointed, and in 1483 the tribunal commenced its terrible career

to her own patriarch. But Venice was no longer the great state she had been. Her commerce had fallen off since the discoveries of Columbus and Da Gama, and most of her conquests were in the hands of the Turks, to whom, in spite of the allied fleet at Lepanto

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under Thomas de Torquemada. The popes, feeling their protest unsuccessful, were compelled from considerations of prudence to tolerate what they were powerless to suppress; but several papal enactments are enumerated by Catholics, the object of which was to control the arbitrary action of the tribunal and to mitigate the rigor and injustice of its proceedings. Unhappily, these measures were ineffective to control the fanatical activity of the local judges. The number of victims, as stated by Llorente, the popular historian of the Inquisition, is positively appalling. He affirms that during the sixteen years of Torquemada's tenure of office nearly 9,000 were condemned to the flames. The second head of the Inquisition, Diego Deza, in eight years, according to the same writer, put above 1,600 to a similar death; and so for the other successive inquisitors-general. But Catholics loudly protest against the credibility of these fearful allegations. It is impossible not to see that Llorente was a violent partizan; and it is alleged that in his work on the Basque Provinces he had already proved himself a venal and unscrupulous fabricator.

The working of the Inquisition in Spain and in its dependencies, even in the New World, involves an amount of cruelty which it is impossible to contemplate without horror. When it was attempted to introduce it into Naples, Pope Paul III, in 1546, exhorted the Neapolitans to resist its introduction, "because it was excessively severe, and refused to moderate its rigor by the example of the Roman tribunal;" Pius IV in 1563 addressed a similar exhortation on the same ground to the Milanese; and even the most bigoted Catholics unanimously confess and repudiate the barbarities which dishonored religion by assuming its semblance and its name.

The procedure of the Inquisition deserves a brief notice. The party, if suspected of heresy, or denounced as guilty, was liable to be arrested and detained in prison, only to be brought to trial when it might seem fit to his judges. The proceedings were conducted secretly. He was not confronted with his accusers, nor were their names even then made known to him. The evidence of an accomplice was admissible, and the accused himself was liable to be put to the torture in order to extort a confession of his guilt. The punishments to which, if found guilty, he was liable, were death by fire, as exemplified in the terrible *Auto da Fé* (q. v.) or on the scaffold, imprisonment in the galleys for life or for a limited period, forfeiture of property, civil infamy, and, in minor cases, retraction and public penance. It is fair to recollect that some of the usages were but the ordinary procedures in all the courts of the age, whether civil or ecclesiastical.

The rigor of the Spanish Inquisition abated in the latter part of the seventeenth century. In the reign of Charles III it was forbidden to punish capitally without the royal warrant; and in 1770 the royal authority was required as a condition even for an arrest. From 1808, under King Joseph Bonaparte, the Inquisition was suppressed until the Restoration; it was again suppressed on the establishment of the constitution of 1820; but it was partially restored in 1825; nor was it till 1834 and 1835 that it was finally abolished in Spain, its property being applied to the liquidation of the national debt.

The Inquisition was established in Portugal in 1557, and its jurisdiction was extended to the Portuguese colonies in India. The rigor of its processes, however, was much mitigated in the eighteenth century, and under John VI it fell altogether into disuse.

The Inquisition in Rome and the papal states never ceased, from the time of its

**Proce-  
dure of  
the In-  
quisition**

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(1571), she had been compelled to give up even Cyprus. Her last achievement, in a war that she had waged at intervals for five centuries, was the conquest of the entire Peloponnesus, in 1684; but in 1715 this fell again into the hands of the infidels. The power of Spain, too, had greatly declined, and besides Masaniello's revolt at Naples (1647) there were risings in Sicily, which gave the island to Louis XIV for two years. But throughout this period, and until as late as the nineteenth century, Italy was disposed of by foreign powers, and partitioned as suited their policy.

Italy  
 Divided

After each of the two European "Wars of Succession,"\* in the eighteenth century, Italy was subjected to a fresh redivision. The services rendered by the House of Savoy against the French, during the war of the Spanish succession, won for it the island of Sicily and the title of king. The new monarch, Victor Amadeus II, was one of the liberal and enlightened despots of the time; and although in 1720 he was compelled to exchange Sicily for Sardinia, from which island his successors took their title until 1861, he built up a real kingdom, took the schools away from the Jesuits, and did much to promote the welfare of his subjects.

Numerous  
 Despotie  
 Sovereigns

The war of the Austrian succession, in which the Sardinians fought gallantly on the Hapsburg-Lorraine side, ended with the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), which left Italy divided as follows: the House of Savoy held Sardinia and Piedmont, with Montferrat and Alessandria, Tortona, and Novara; the Austrians retained Milan and Tuscany; the Bourbon Charles III was king of the Two Sicilies, and his brother Philip, duke of Parma; the papal territory stretched across the center of the peninsula to the frontiers of Venice, which survived as a republic until 1797; and finally Modena and Genoa were placed under the protection of France, to whom the Genoese ceded the island of Corsica in 1755. Italy now enjoyed a brief period of freedom from wars; but her

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establishment, to exercise a severe and watchful control over heresy, or the suspicion of heresy, which offense was punished by imprisonment and civil disabilities; but of capital sentences for heresy the history of the Roman Inquisition presents few instances, and, according to Balmez, that tribunal "has never been known to order the execution of a capital sentence" for the crime of heresy. The tribunal still exists under the direction of a congregation, but its action is confined to the examination of books and the trial of ecclesiastical offenses and questions of church law; and since the Italian occupation of Rome in 1870, its supreme jurisdiction is limited to the Vatican.

\* War of the Spanish Succession, and the Austrian Succession.



numerous sovereigns were absolute, each within his petty domain, and the despotic policy of the Bourbons, who held nearly all the country, was generally adopted. An honorable exception was Peter Leopold, who was Grand-duke of Tuscany from 1765 until he succeeded to the Austrian empire as Leopold II in 1790. He instituted many reforms, restricted the power of the priesthood, and suppressed the Inquisition. To the rule of this prince the harsh, jealous oppression of the other sovereigns presents a pitiful contrast. For Italy the long reign of misery and darkness was at last about to pass away — but slowly; the night was not yet past.

The storm of the French revolution burst in 1792. In 1796 Napoleon entered Italy; in 1797 the Cisalpine, Ligurian, Cispadane, and Tiberine republics, with their capitals at Milan, Genoa, Bologna, and Rome, were formed out of northern and central Italy, and Venice and her territory beyond the Adige were bestowed on Austria. The next year Naples surrendered, and was made the capital of the Parthenopæan republic. The democrats in the cities joyfully welcomed the new doctrines brought by the invading army; but even they soon wearied of a nominal freedom that bestowed chiefly the privilege of sharing the heavy costs of French wars, and in 1800 Napoleon had to win the peninsula afresh by the victory of Marengo. In 1804 he made himself emperor, and in 1805 he was crowned king of Italy at Milan. The Bourbons were permitted to retain Tuscany and Naples, and the pope was reinstated in the possession of Rome. Naples, however, was given to Joseph Bonaparte in 1806, and to Joachim Murat in 1808; the following year Rome was annexed to the French empire, and the emperor's sister, Eliza, was made Duchess of Tuscany.

The Congress of Vienna (1815) restored the map of Italy very much to its former appearance; but the advantages of the new distribution fell nearly all to the house of Austria. Venice was added to the Austrian crown, and Lombardy retained; an Austrian duke was set over Modena; and the Austrian Ferdinand III received back Tuscany, to which Lucca was to be added whenever the death of Napoleon's Austrian wife, Maria Louisa, should give Parma again to its former Bourbon masters. The only other lasting change was the transference of Genoa to Victor Emmanuel I of Sardinia. Naples and Sicily were restored to the Bourbons, and the pope was once more put in possession of the States of

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Napoleon  
in ItalyCongress  
of 1815  
Changes  
Italy

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RestoredLocal  
Disturb-  
ance

the Church. The little republic of San Marino was also recognized by the congress.

A period of absolutism and rigid repression now ensued. The returned princes adopted in full the policy dictated from Vienna, and strove by all means to crush the rising spirit of independence. The Jesuits, whose order had been suppressed by the pope in 1773, were restored and the elementary education placed in their hands, where it was effectually strangled. The legions of Austria filled Lombardo-Venetia, and were at the service of all the petty despots in the other parts of Italy; while a yet larger army of spies was at work in every corner of the unhappy country. The general misery provoked conspiracy, and the revolutionary societies sprang up everywhere. But the movement had as yet no directing head. There were risings in southern Italy in 1820, but they were suppressed in the following year, and the leaders executed; and numerous less important insurrections there, in the period preceding 1846, were easily put down. Other abortive attempts were made in Piedmont, in Lombardy, in Modena, and the Romagna, the only result of which was to make the rulers' hands yet heavier on the people. Nor was there thorough unanimity or common action among the Italian liberals. The extreme republicans, represented by the party of young Italy, were headed by Mazzini, whose fiery eloquence and enthusiasm transformed the vague desires of his countrymen into a passionate hope; but his policy sanctioned methods from which more sober patriots shrank. From Geneva he led a band of refugees to the invasion of Savoy, in 1833, because the new king, Charles Albert, would not enter on a war with Austria; but this wild raid proved an utter failure.

Already the wiser minds in Italy looked to Sardinia for deliverance; but the dream of a confederacy, with perhaps the pope as president, was not dispelled. Nay, it seemed about to be realized when, in 1846, Pius IX assumed the tiara, and initiated a series of liberal reforms. Constitutions were granted in 1847 by all the rulers save Austria and Ferdinand II of Naples; and from the latter a constitution was wrung in the following year.

Revolu-  
tions in  
1848

The year of revolutions, 1848, opened with a street massacre by the Austrians in Milan, on January 2. In February the French Republic was declared, and then in Italy the party of Mazzini was for a moment supreme. Sicily revolted from Ferdinand, and in

March Charles Albert declared war on the Austrians, who had been driven out of Milan and Venice. He passed the Ticino, and defeated Radetsky at Goito; but on July 25 the Austrians won the decisive battle of Custozza, re-entered Milan, and placed the country under martial law. In Naples there had been a massacre in May, and on August 30 Messina was bombarded. Meanwhile the pope's heart had failed him. His troops had gone to the help of the Sardinians, but before their surrender he had declared their advance to have been without his leave. The republicans, who had regarded his liberal measures with suspicion and jealousy, now denounced him as a traitor to the cause of Italian freedom. On November 15 his wisest minister, Count Rossi, was assassinated, and Pius fled to Gaeta in disguise. A republic was set up in Rome on the 9th of February, 1849, under Mazzini and two other triumvirs. The grand-duke Leopold had fled from Florence, but Tuscany refused to join herself to the republic; yet when the sovereign she had invited back returned, his first act, supported by the presence of Austrian troops, was to suppress the constitution. In Piedmont, the ultra-radicals, headed by Ratazzi, were now in power, and a fresh campaign against Austria was begun, this time lasting less than four days. On March 23 Radetsky defeated the Piedmontese at Novara. Charles Albert gave up his throne to his son, Victor Emmanuel II, and died, broken-hearted, at Oporto four months later.

Efforts were now made to reduce Rome and Venice. In vain did Garibaldi, who had been called to the defense of Rome, defeat the Neapolitans at Palestrina and Velletri. A French army under General Oudinot, took the city, after a four weeks' siege, on July 2. Venice, under the heroic Daniel Nanin, bravely kept her enemies at bay until August 22. The petty sovereigns now came back — the pope last, in April, 1850. Rome, occupied by a French garrison, was kept in a state of siege for seven years, and the city never quite recovered its freedom until 1870. Italy's first general effort for freedom had ended in failure: 1848 was a year of unfulfilled visions. But one important gain was effected: the dream of federation was ended, and all men looked now to the House of Savoy, save the few idealists, like Mazzini, who afterward stood sternly apart from the triumph of compromise.

Victor Emmanuel was faithful to the Italian cause, and perse-

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**Pope De-  
nounced  
as a  
Traitor  
to Italian  
Freedom**

**Rome  
Taken**

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vered in the path of reform on which his family had entered. Sardinia was relieved, by the law which gave the government power to abolish monasteries, from the incubus of an army of idle and ignorant ecclesiastics; a liberal constitution was in force, the press was free, education was spreading, and a measure of religious liberty was enjoyed. In 1853 the Sardinian prime ministry passed into the hands of Cavour, the brain, as Garibaldi was the arm,

of the coming struggle. Henceforth he inspired and guided the national movement until his death in the moment of victory. The Sardinian troops, reorganized by La Marmora, were sent under that general to the Crimea, where they won for themselves honor, and for their country allies among the great powers.

Cavour made terms with Louis Napoleon, and in 1859 war was declared once more against Austria. The French and Italians won the battles of Nagenta and



HUMBERT I

War  
with  
Austria

Solferino in June, and then the French emperor, acting independently, agreed to a treaty which left the Austrians in possession of Venetia, from the Mincio eastward. The indignation of the Piedmontese, whose sovereign had, under Cavour's agreement with Louis Napoleon, to give up Savoy and Nice in return for this assistance, was intense; but the states of central Italy voted their union to the kingdom of Victor Emmanuel, and were annexed in March, 1860; and a few days after southern Italy revolted from Francis II, the son of Ferdinand.

Garibaldi  
Enters  
Naples

Garibaldi and his volunteers, their expedition secretly favored by Cavour, went to the support of the insurrection in May, and in

September entered Naples. Cavour, with the consent of Louis Napoleon (who, however, maintained the pope in Rome, because his own position in France was strengthened by his championing the head of the Catholic Church), now sent an army into the papal states, which defeated the pope's troops at Castelfidaro, joined Garibaldi, and helped him to defeat the Neapolitan generals on the Volturno. In October Victor Emmanuel entered the Abruzzi, and Garibaldi resigned his dictatorship, and retired to his island-farm.

In February, 1861, the first Italian parliament met at Turin, and Victor Emmanuel was proclaimed king of Italy. But Rome and Venice were not yet freed, and Cavour died in June of this year. In 1862 Garibaldi raised a body of volunteers to liberate Rome, and, having crossed to the mainland, was defeated at Aspromonte; the blame, however, fell chiefly on Rattazzi, who was then minister, and who had sought to follow Cavour's policy, and to reap the advantage of Garibaldi's expedition, but had neglected to first come to an understanding with France. The expressed sympathy of Europe brought about the September convention of 1864, by which Louis Napoleon agreed gradually to withdraw the French troops on Italy's stipulation not to allow an attack on the pope's territory. By the last article of the convention, the capital was removed a step nearer Rome — from Turin to Florence. In 1866 the Austro-Prussian war, in which Italy took but an inglorious part as the ally of Prussia, added to the kingdom the coveted territory of Venice. In the same year the French garrison was withdrawn from Rome, and Mazzini demanded that the city should be captured. In 1867 Garibaldi and his volunteers gained a victory near Rome, and the French returned; the volunteers surrendered in November, and the general was arrested. But after the fall of the empire, in 1870, the new foreign minister of France, Jules Favre, declared the September convention at an end, and the king, who had only prevented the democrats from moving by arresting Mazzini, was at length free to act. On September 20 he entered Rome, and the emancipation of Italy was completed.

The pope retained the Vatican, the church of Sta. Marie Maggiore, the Lateran palace, the villa of Castel Gandolfo, with their precincts, and was voted an income of \$750,000 out of the revenues of the state; yet the spiritual sovereign has borne but impa-

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First  
Italian  
Parliament,  
1861Pope  
Retains  
Vatican,  
Etc.

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## ITALY

Italy  
Free and  
United

tiently the loss of his temporal power, and frequent complaints and denunciations have been directed from the Vatican against the palace on the Quirinal. Meanwhile Italy, at last free and united, has become one of the great continental powers.

The later history of Italy has been uneventful. Brigandage, rife under the tyrannical rule of the Bourbons, and afterward encouraged by their emissaries, has been gradually suppressed; education and public works have steadily advanced, and in the south the people have become more reconciled, at least less inveterately hostile, to the laws. In January, 1878, Victor Emmanuel died, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Humbert I (born 1844); and one month later Pius IX died also, and Leo XIII became pope.

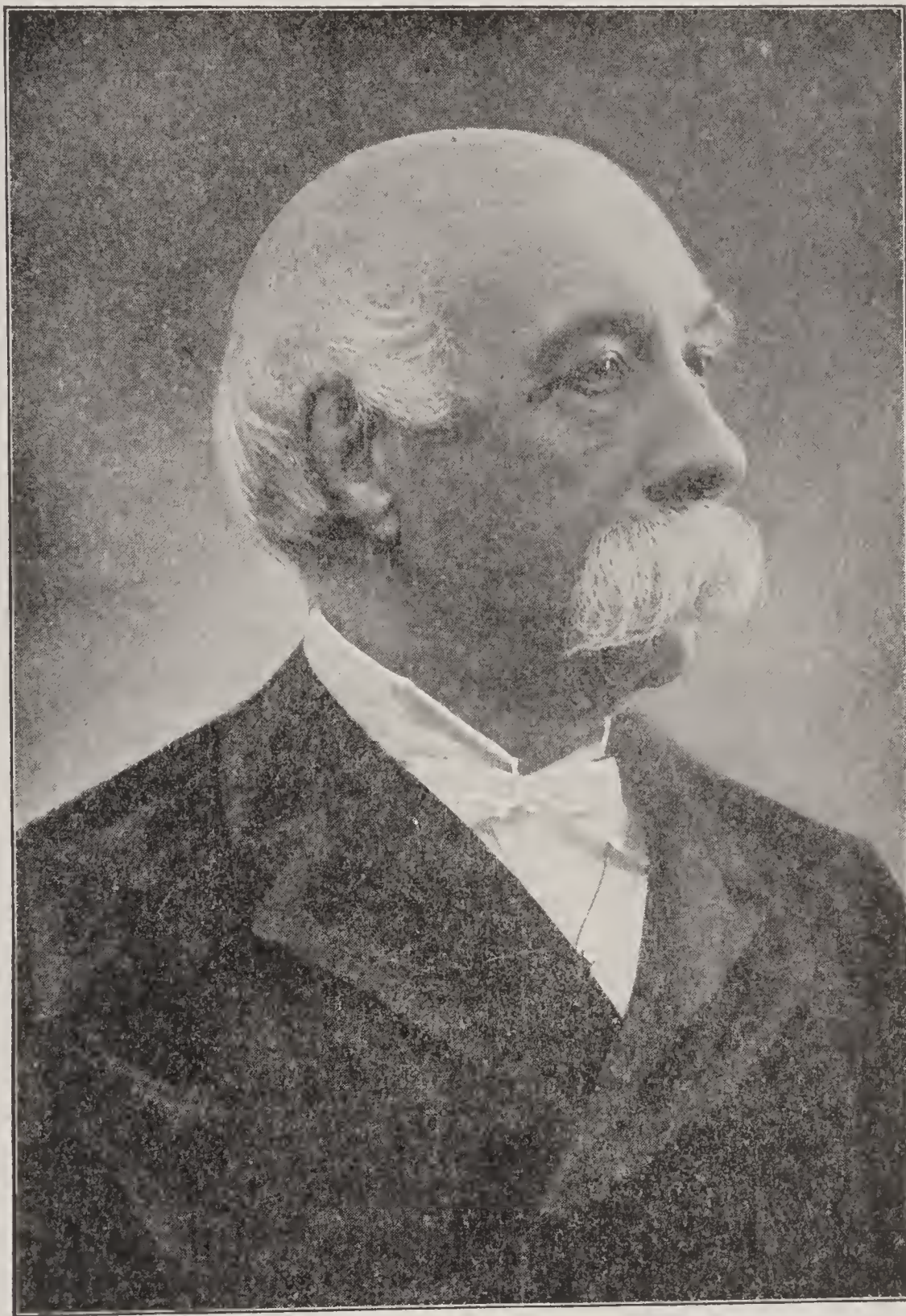
The most important internal measures since 1878 have been the wide extension of the franchise, and in 1883 the resumption of specie payment. The popular interest in political questions so far is not great; but the government has been from time to time embarrassed by the agitation conducted by the extreme party of Irredentists, whose professed aim is to add to the kingdom all those districts of Europe where the Italian speech prevails. These, which they have named Italia Irredenta (Unredeemed Italy), embrace the southern Tyrol (the Trentino), Gorz, Trieste, Istria, and Dalmatia, and also the Swiss canton of Tessin (Ticino), Nice, and the islands of Corsica and Malta; but it is mainly against Austria that the hatred of the Irredentists is directed.

In 1883 the ministry denounced the schemes of the Association, as aiming indirectly at the downfall of the monarchy, and at the same time extolled the triple alliance of Italy, Germany, and Austria, into which Italy, exasperated at the extension of French influence in Tunis, had entered. To this same jealousy of France's encroachments on the southern Mediterranean shore may be attributed the erection into an Italian colony, in 1882, of a coaling station founded the year before at Assab, on the Red Sea. In 1885 Massowah was occupied, and in 1889 the Italian colonial territory was amalgamated under the name of Eritrea. In January, 1887, a disaster to the Italian troops brought on a desultory war with Abyssinia, which ended in an arrangement, in 1889, that placed the latter country under Italian protection. In 1887 Signor Depretis, who had headed eight ministries, was succeeded as premier by Signor Crispi.

The  
Irredent-  
istsItaly  
Party  
to the  
Triple  
Alliance

Owing to opposition and defeat on financial questions, the Crispi ministry resigned on the 31st of January, 1891. A new ministry headed by Marquis di Rudini was chosen on the sixth of the next month, but it resigned on the 5th of May following. The next

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FRANCISCO CRISPI

ministry (May 11th) was headed by Signor Giolitti, reconstructed later on, and forced to resign in November owing to the official bank investigations which seemed to implicate members of the ministry. Signor Crispi, who had retired from public life in Feb-

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ruary, 1892, again came to the front and took his place as president of a new ministry (December 15, 1893). July 14, 1896, Rudini was again in control, a change demanded by the popular rage engendered through the reverses sustained by the army in Abyssinia. On December 2, 1897, a commission of five was appointed by the chamber of deputies to inquire into the charges laid against the ex-premier, Signor Crispi, of complicity in the great banking scandals which had excited so much public interest a few years before. At that time the Bank of Rome and the Bank of Naples were forced into an insolvent condition by means of blackmailing extortions to which they were subjected by leading politicians and government officials of the day.

As most of this dishonesty took place during the administration of Crispi, suspicion naturally attached to him. After a long discussion the Italian chamber of deputies adopted the report of the parliamentary commission recommending the application of political censure against the ex-premier. Although Signor Crispi's condemnation is complete, he will not be prosecuted. His resignation from the chamber of deputies was accepted immediately after the adoption of the report.

May 28, 1898, the Rudini ministry resigned, and on June 30 a new cabinet headed by General Pelloux was announced.



## VENICE

VENICE was known as the "Pearl," or "Queen," of the Adriatic. In the fifth century the Veneti, expelled by the Lombards and Goths from Padua, Altinum, and Aquileia, found refuge in the islands of the lagoons, making Malamocca their chief port and their seat of government, afterward (ninth century) transferred to Rivo-Alto, the nucleus of Venice. Tradition places its first buildings on the site of the Basilica of St. Mark, and these now cover more than seventy-two islets, or rather mud-banks, their foundations being piles ("time petrified") and stone. Through its two unequal portions winds for over two miles the Grand Canal (Canalazzo), spanned by the Rialto bridge (of stone) and two others (of iron), and from its outer rim flow into the Canalazzo 146 lesser canals, all bridged at frequent intervals.

Venice arose to historical importance in 697 A. D., when its island communities, governed for 240 years by annually elected tribunes, superseded these at the instance of Cristoforo, patriarch of Grado, by a duke, or doge, of absolute authority in church and state, during peace and war. Paolo Lucio Anafesto, first of the long line of doges, ruled the republic with power and wisdom, suppressing faction, and acquiring from the Lombards a foothold on the mainland. Orso, the third doge (720-37), gained further advantages over the Lombards, whom he compelled to reinstate the Exarch of Ravenna, for which service the Byzantine emperor honored him with the title of Ipato (Hypatos), or imperial consul. Gravitating through political interest to Constantinople, Venice opposed the policy of France in the Adriatic and incurred the enmity of Pepin, whose fleet blockaded the Venetians in the central island (Rialto). But the ebbing tide left the invaders stranded off the islet of Albiola, where the light flotilla of Venice annihilated them. From the Rialto, now (810) the seat of government, the Doge Agnello Partecipazio ruled all the neighboring islets, connecting them with bridges, and forming the modern Venice. Having acquired the relics of St. Mark (827), the Doge Giovanni I Partecipazio made the evangelist the tutelary saint of Venice, and began (829) the building of his cathedral. A long interval of comparative peace favored the maritime and mercantile expansion of the city. Istria and Dalmatia were conquered,

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VENICE

Con-  
struction  
of the  
City of  
VeniceVenice  
Domi-  
nant  
in the  
Levant

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 VENICE  
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while commercial relations were opened up with the West and still more with the East as far as the Crimea and Tartary, and made Venice a dominant power in the Levant and one of the leaders of the crusades. Ostensibly religious, but really commercial, this latter enterprise of the Venetians left them stronger than ever in the Mediterranean. Meanwhile the city itself, reduced to ashes



DOGE'S PALACE AND COLUMN

by successive conflagrations, replaced its wooden by stone edifices, in which marble from Italian and Dalmatian quarries figured largely, and laid the foundation of those palaces since one of its characteristic features. Extended relations abroad provoked inevitable wars. The crusading expedition of the Doge Faliero, followed up by his successor, Domenico Michele, riveted the power of Venice in Syria by the reduction of Tyre,

and eventually brought the republic into collision with the Byzantine emperor, Joannes Comnenus, who decreed the suspension of all intercourse between the two powers. Resorting to swift reprisals, Venice next year (1123) punished the empire by the capture of Rhodes, besieged or sacked the Cyclades, Sporades, and Ionian Islands, with part of the Morea, and once more reduced





BRIDGE OF SIGHS, VENICE

Dalmatia, instigated by the Hungarian king to revolt. Siding first with the German emperor and then with the pope, the republic witnessed the meeting of the two (Frederick I and Alexander III) within its walls, and was confirmed by the latter in its eternal dominion of the sea. This triumphant policy, diplomatic and strategic, was the work of the Doge Ziani (1172-78), who also improved the city by laying out the Piazza di S. Marco. Enrico Dandolo reduced Trieste, reconquered Zara, and headed the fourth crusade, nominally for Palestine, really against Constantinople, which he stormed. He thus brought about the partition of the Greco-Latin empire, of which Venice received the lion's share — a large slice of Greece and its islands, with a foothold in the Balkan Peninsula, on the Hellespont, and in Constantinople itself, of which a fourth part was reserved for Venetian occupation, protected by Venetian laws, and absolutely unrestricted as to trade. To this period belongs the embellishment of the city with the art treasures of the East — its palaces receiving the care which a territorial aristocracy bestows on its lands, and employing a new and noble school of artists to celebrate the triumphs of the doges.

Under the second Ziani (1205-29) arose the hostilities with Genoa, culminating in the ten years' naval war in which Dandolo succumbed to Doria, and Venice, shattered at sea, witnessed the reoccupation of Constantinople by Michael Palæologus, with whom the republic had to make truce. The abolition of the old laws regulating the election of the doge caused the conversion of the republic into an aristocratic oligarchy (1297), whose malgovernment led to conspiracies, the most formidable being that of Quirini-Trepolo, which proved abortive, but gave direct occasion to reforms. Among these was the establishment of the Council of Ten (1310), declared a permanent body in 1335. The mercantile prosperity of this period was reflected in the ornamentation of the city, and an enlargement of the arsenal, whence Francesco Dandolo sailed against the Turks. Andrea Dandolo put down revolt in Candia and Zara, though this was supported by Hungary. The latter doge's great capacity as a thinker and man of letters appears in his *Venetian Annals* — a model of mediæval history. In 1348 an earthquake upheaved the lagoon, and a seven months' pestilence ensued, the flood and the disease destroying two fifths of

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Fourth  
CrusadeWar  
with  
Genoa

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the population and fifty patrician families. To the memorable conspiracy headed by the Doge Marino Faliero the fourteenth century owes much of its interest, enhanced by the commercial rivalry between Genoa and Venice which culminated in naval battles alternately in favor of either side, till Genoa followed its latest advantage by seizing the island of Chioggia (1379). Venice in turn became the aggressor, starved the Genoese to the point of surrender, and accepted from them an unconditional capitulation (1380). Sixteen years thereafter Genoa became the dependent of France, and was no longer the effective rival of Venice, which in consequence reassumed its supremacy at sea in war and merchandise, trading with every European country, and with the East as far as India, importing from England the iron of Staffordshire, the tin of Cornwall and Devonshire, and the wool of Sussex. The close of the fourteenth and beginning of the fifteenth century saw the Venetian arms triumphant on the Italian mainland, till under the Doge Foscari (1423-57) the long war with Milan was concluded by a peace, and a league of the Italian states was formed (1454) for the mutual safeguard of their possessions. The latter half of the fifteenth century was chiefly occupied with hostilities against the aggressive Turks, with inter-Italian broils in which petty duke and sovereign pontiff figure, now as enemies, now as allies of Venice, and with a war with France closed by treaty (1499).

War  
with  
Turks

Loses  
Com-  
mercial  
Suprem-  
acy

The sixteenth century opens with the oligarchy at the zenith of its power, but this was of short duration. The discovery of America and of a passage to the East Indies began to tell upon its trade, and the constant drain of wars, local and imperial, was not met by the diminished revenue from abroad. Incessant collisions brought about by the league of Cambray impaired commerce and industry, necessitating an undecided policy between the great belligerents Charles V and Francis I, and an unprofitable neutrality in the religious agitations of Europe. In the seventeenth century the pressure of Austria became such as to force the oligarchy to side with the enemies of that power — with Henry IV of France, with Bethlem Gabor and Ragotski, with the duke of Savoy against Spain, and with the Protestants against the Catholics of the Grisons. In 1644 began the twenty-five years' war in Candia, in which the Venetian admirals defeated the Turks in a succession of mighty engagements, resulting in future successes in Greece and Illyricum,

in which the highest name is that of the Doge Francesco Morosini, who, after heading his fleet triumphantly for the third time, died at Nauplia (1694). Neutral in the war of the Spanish succession, Venice became again embroiled with Turkey, and lost the Morea and its hold on Crete (1718).

Gradual decay marks its subsequent history; its policy became feebler throughout the eighteenth century, its commerce had sunk irretrievably, so that in 1796 Napoleon found nothing but the shadow of its former self on his invasion of the city. By the shameful treaty of Campo Formio the Austrians became its masters (1798), and again by the Congress of Vienna reoccupied it in compensation for the Belgian provinces. Its revolt of 1848 and heroic defense by Daniel Manin led up to its final cession (1866) to Napoleon III, who handed it over to Victor Emmanuel—the last state but one to become absorbed in united Italy.

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 VENICE  
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Decay  
 Sets in

A Part of  
 Austria

### SAN MARINO

SAN MARINO, the smallest independent republic in Europe, has an area of 33 square miles, lies between the provinces of Forli and Pesaro-Urbino, and consists of part of the spurs of the Apennines.

The republic is governed by a great council of sixty members (twenty nobles, twenty burgesses, twenty rural land-owners) named for life by the council itself. From this body is elected the Council of Twelve, which, with the assistance of a legal adviser, decides in the third and last resort. Two captains-regent, elected every six months (one from the nobles, one from the other two classes), represent the state, which also has its home secretary, its minister of foreign affairs, its chancellor of the exchequer, an army of nine hundred and fifty men, and a regular budget. By treaty with Italy (1872) San Marino, instead of maintaining a customs line of its own, receives a certain proportion of the Italian customs revenue; and agreeing not to grow tobacco, is allowed to purchase foreign tobacco duty free. To avoid any difficulty about copyright there is no printing press in the republic.

Govern-  
 ment

San Marino derives its name from a certain Dalmatian mason, who, along with a comrade immortalized by the neighboring castle and cathedral of San Leo, settled in this region in the third century. The bones of Marinus are said to have been removed to

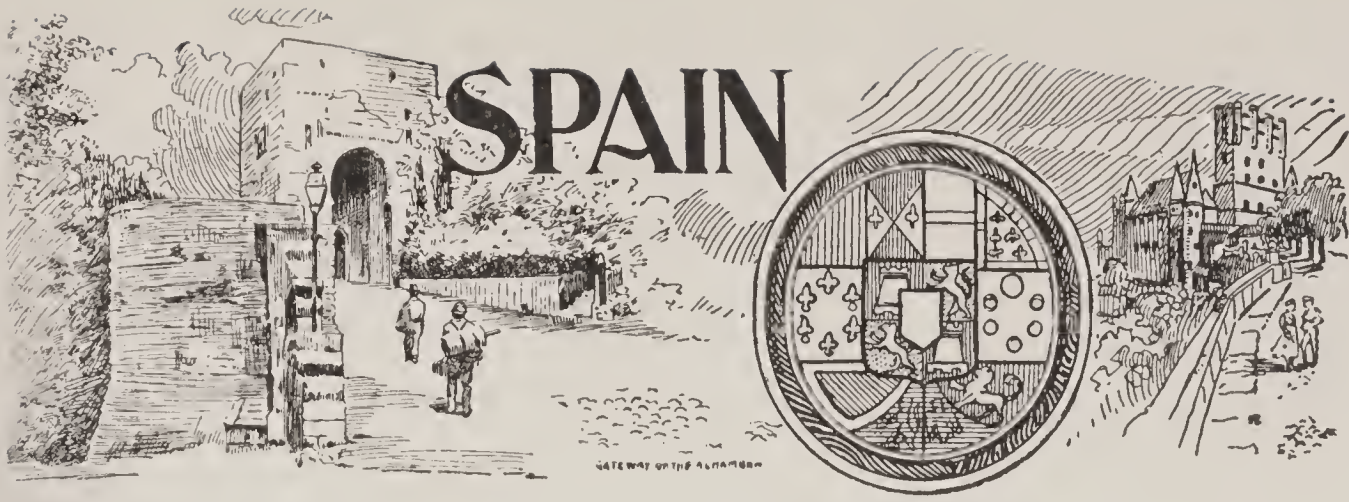
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 SAN MARINO

Pavia by the Lombard king, Astolphus, and restored to the little city on Mount Titanus by Pepin; but the first authentic document proving the existence of the community dates from 885. Situated as a bulwark between the hostile houses of Montefeltro and Malatesta, San Marino fortunately attached itself to the stronger party, which in the fifteenth century placed its representative on the ducal throne of Urbino. The assistance which it rendered Duke Federigo and his allies, the king of Naples and the pope, against Sigismondo Malatesta was rewarded in 1463 with the castles and territories of Serraville, Fætano, and Montegiardino. On the annexation of Urbino to the States of the Church (1631), the independence of San Marino was acknowledged; and the unauthorized assertion of papal jurisdiction by Alberoni in 1739 was disallowed by Clement XII on February 5, 1740. In 1794 Napoleon I decided to preserve the "*échantillon de république*;" and in 1854 it was protected from the designs of Pius IX by the interference of Napoleon III. At the unification of Italy, Cicrario, a citizen in the service of the house of Savoy, helped to secure excellent terms for San Marino.

Inde-  
 pendence  
 Acknowl-  
 edged





## THE HISTORY OF SPAIN

[*Authorities:* M. M. Siret, *Les Premiers Ages du Metal dans le Sud-Est de l'Espagne* (Antwerp, 1887); Hübner's *La Arqueologia de España*, (Barcelona, 1888). In mediæval Spain Schirmacher's *Geschichte Castiliens, 12 und 13 Jahrh.* (Gotha, 1881), and *Geschichte Spaniens, im 14 Jahrh.* (Gotha, 1890), with a volume to follow, will lead up to Prescott's works. Ferrer del Río's *Historia del Reinado de Carlos III en España* (4 vols.) is good. The *España Sagrada* (51 vols.) is a useful collection, chiefly for ecclesiastical events. The Academy of History in its *Boletin* and *Memorias* has valuable materials. Colmeiro's *Introduccion to the Cortes de Leon y Castilla* (2 vols. Madrid, 1883) and Cárdenas' *Ensayo sobre le Historia de la Propiedad Territorial en España* (Madrid, 1873); Murray's *Handbook of Spain* (1888); and Piera y Sans, *España y sus Colonias* (1891).



SPAIN is situated in the southwest of Europe, and, with Portugal, occupies the Iberian peninsula. This country was well known to the Phœnicians at least a thousand years before the Christian era, yet it appears to have been very imperfectly known to the Greeks in the time of Herodotus.

It early became a land of many tribes and races. The earliest race of which there is any authentic testimony is the Iberian. It occupied nearly the whole of Spain and the south of France before the Roman conquest. Until the coming of the Carthaginians into Spain, however, nothing certain can be affirmed of the Spaniards, and this happened not long before the first Punic war. In ancient times Spain was regarded as a country of great riches, and though at the time of the Roman conquest, large quantities of gold and silver had been carried out of it by the Carthaginians and Tyrians, it still had the reputation of being very rich. Aristotle says that when the Phœnicians first arrived in Spain they exchanged their naval commodities for such quantities of silver that their ships could neither contain nor sustain

Early  
Races

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their loads, though they used it for ballast and made their anchors and their implements of silver.

Leaving out of the question the mere traders, such as the Phœnicians of the south and southwest, the Egyptians on the east, and the Greeks from Massilia on the northeast, the first power which seriously attempted to occupy Spain was Carthage.\* When the Carthaginians were driven out of Sicily, they began the occupation of Spain. Hamilcar, the first of a great line of Carthaginian generals, began the conquest in 238 B. C.

Rome  
 Conquers  
 Spain

Here they were met and thwarted by the Romans. It then became the task of the Romans to conquer Spain. In subjugating the Iberian and Celtiberian tribes of Spain they found far greater difficulty than with any more purely Celtic race. The sieges of Saguntum, Numantia, and Clunia were evidences of the resistance which Spain put forth. Even when conquest seemed assured, Viriathus, 143–140 B. C., probably a native, and Sertorius, a Sabine leader, 83–72 B. C., tried the capacity of the best generals of Rome. It was in Spain, too, that the final issue between Cæsar and the Pompeians was fought out at Munda.

Sertorius  
 in Spain

Pompey  
 Defeats  
 Sertorius'  
 Army

Nothing of importance now occurred in the history of the peninsula till the civil war between Marius and Sulla, B. C. 76. The latter, having crushed the Marian faction, proscribed all those who had joined against him whom he could not destroy. Among these was Sertorius, who had collected a powerful army from the relics of the party, and contended with great success against the generals who were sent against him. Sertorius now formed the design of erecting Lusitania into an independent republic, and so vigorously were his measures prosecuted that the Romans became seriously alarmed for the safety of their empire in that quarter. The man-

Cartha-  
 ginians  
 in Spain

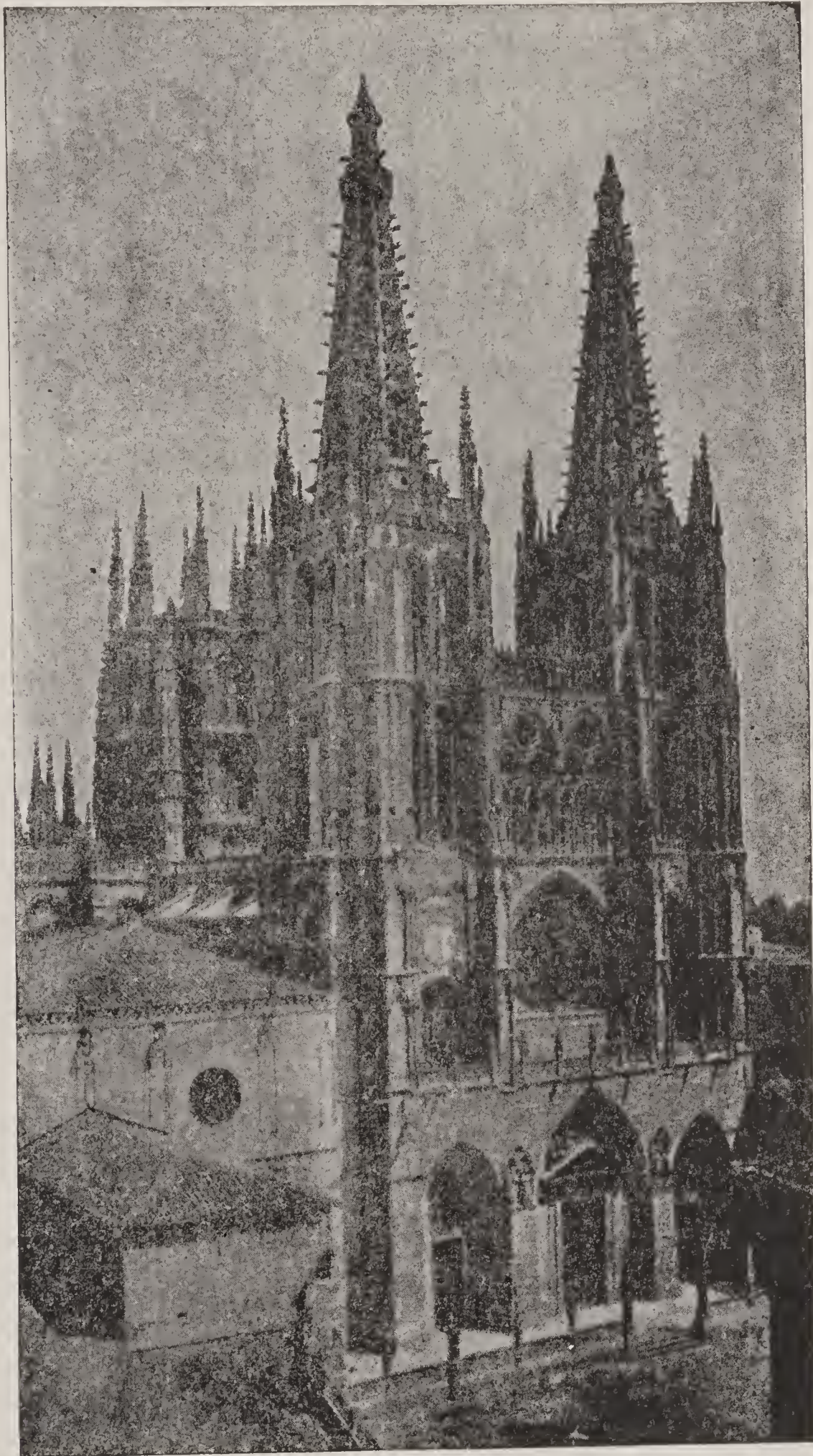
\* Hamilcar determined to build up an empire in Spain which would compensate for the loss of Sicily, and furnish an admirable recruiting ground in the struggle with Rome, of which he foresaw the renewal. He crossed into Spain in 236 B. C., and before his death in 229 B. C., he had by arms and diplomacy extended the sway of Carthage over a great part of the peninsula. His work was ably carried on by his son-in-law, Hasdrubal, who was remarkably successful in conciliating the Spaniards. Hasdrubal was assassinated in 221 B. C., at which time Carthage held all Spain up to the Ebro. On the death of Hasdrubal the troops chose as their leader Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, the greatest of all the Carthaginians, and one of the greatest captains the world has seen. In 219 B. C. Hannibal captured the town of Saguntum, a city in alliance with Rome. The Romans, who had long been jealous of the progress their rivals had made in Spain, thereupon declared that the treaty was broken, and the second Punic war began.

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—



BURGOS CATHEDRAL

agement of this expedition against Spain was entrusted to Pompey. Sertorius for a long time proved quite a match for his army, and

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finally compelled the Romans to retreat into Gaul. Sertorius was assassinated, and Pompey pressed forward with redoubled ardor against the insurgent army, and the troops, deprived of their able leader, were subdued by him.

But Spain was not completely brought under Roman rule until the time of Augustus. Once subdued, it became thoroughly Roman, and the impress of Rome has been deeper on the language, manners, and religion of Spain than on those of any other country. The Romans divided Spain into two provinces,—Nearer and Farther Spain. During the Roman war Christianity was introduced into Spain, and spread rapidly. In 325 A. D., at the Council of Nicæa, Hosius of Cordova was the greatest name in the West, overshadowing that of the bishop of Rome.

Chris-  
 tianity  
 Intro-  
 duced

In the arts of war and peace the peninsula at that period rivaled Rome, and it gave birth to many men of first-rate character and abilities; among them were Pomponius Mela, Seneca, Lucan, Trajan, and Theodosius the Great.

Spain felt deeply the effects of the downfall of the Roman empire. The native Spanish legionaries were serving in all parts of the empire; barely two foreign legions garrisoned the whole of Spain. Thus, when the Suevi and Vandals, about 409, and the Visigoths, about 414, invaded Spain, the country, which had taken the Romans two centuries to subdue, had little means of resistance. The intruders established themselves in Galicia and Lusitania; the Vandals, penetrating farther south, crossed to Africa in 429. For some time Spain was only a province of a larger Visigothic kingdom.

Spain  
 and the  
 Downfall  
 of Rome

Visigoths  
 in Spain

The Visigoths under Euric extended their kingdom by the expulsion of the Romans in 484. Theudis, in 573, was the first Visigoth king to fix his court in Spain, and in 583 Leovigild overthrew the kingdom of the Suevi in Galicia, and in 624 the Byzantine Romans were finally expelled from the east coast. Recarred I, who succeeded Leovigild, introduced the Catholic faith, and from that time the unity of the Spanish nation was maintained by the Catholic religious and political influence of the clergy. The bishops were supreme in the councils of Toledo, which were also the chief councils of the state. The Jews were now persecuted and rendered hostile. They intrigued with the Mohammedan Arabs, who had conquered north Africa and crushed out Chris-

tianity. Their assistance and that of the count of the Roman possessions in the straits, enabled Tarik to land at Tarifa, and then they descended on the Gothic dominion of Spain. Roderic, the king of the Goths, was a usurper, and, having caused great dissatisfaction among his subjects, he determined to come to an engagement, knowing that he could not depend upon the fidelity of his own people if he allowed the enemy time to tamper with them. The two armies were under Xeres in Andalusia. The Goths began the attack with great fury, but they were totally defeated, and Roderic in his flight was drowned in the Guadalquiver A. D. 711.

Nearly the whole of Spain was brought under the dominion of the Moors by this decisive battle. The Goths who still contended for independence returned into the mountainous parts of Asturia, Burgos, and Biscay. In three years the Moors had gained the whole of Spain except the north and northwest. By 732 they reached their extreme northern limit, when they were defeated by Charles Martel\* at the battle of Tours. In the meantime the Goths began to revive their power under Pelayo, a prince of the royal blood, who headed those who had retired to the mountains after the fatal battle of Xeres. In the most inaccessible parts of this region Pelayo established himself, and such were its natural defenses that, although the Moorish governors sent a powerful army to crush him, the followers of Pelayo were so concealed

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Moors in  
PowerCharles  
Martel at  
ToursCharles  
Martel

\* Charles, surnamed Martel ("the Hammer"), was the natural son of Pepin of Heristal, mayor of the palace under the last Merovingian kings, and was born about 688. After his father's death in 714, he was chosen as their duke by the Austrasian Franks, and at the close of a struggle with the Neustrian Franks became in 720 undisputed mayor of the palace and real ruler of the Franks, the titular kings being mere puppets in his hands. He had much hard fighting with the Saxons and other stubborn Teutonic races, as the Alemanni and Bavarians, but his great service to Christendom and to civilization was that he rolled back the surging tide of Moslem conquest. The Saracens had already taken Bordeaux, overrun the duchy of Aquitania, and advanced to the Loire, when Charles met them between Tours and Poitiers (732), and after a desperate battle, in which their leader, Abd-ur-Rahmân, fell, completely defeated them. This was one of the most important victories in the world's history, and saved Western civilization from hopeless retrogression and ruin. "But for it," says Gibbon, "perhaps the interpretation of the Koran would now be taught in the schools of Oxford, and her pulpits might demonstrate to a circumcised people the sanctity and truth of the revelation of Mahomet." Charles finished his work by defeating the Saracens again in 737, when they had advanced in the Burgundian territories as far as Lyons, and by driving them out of Languedoc. He died on October 22, 741, at Quiercy on the Oise, in the midst of his victories, his projects, and his greatness, leaving the government of the kingdom to be divided between his two sons, Carloman and Pepin the Short.

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Spain  
under  
Caliphs

that, almost unseen, they annihilated their enemies. The Moors were equally unsuccessful in a second attempt, and nearly the whole of their army was either cut to pieces or taken prisoners.

At this time the greater part of Spain became provinces of the caliphs of Bagdad, but in the middle of the eighth century Abderrahman, the caliph's viceroy in Spain, threw off the yoke and rendered himself independent, fixing the seat of his government at Cordova. He built a most superb mosque, and it still remains as a splendid monument of the skill and magnificence of that enlightened people. The descendants of Abderrahman continued for nearly two centuries to reign in Spain at their capital Cordova, patronizing science and arts, particularly astronomy and medicine, at the time when Christianity was immersed in ignorance and barbarism.

Charle-  
magne in  
Spain

In 778 Charlemagne entered Spain with two large armies, one passing through Catalonia and the other through Navarre, where he pushed his conquests as far as the Ebro. On his return he was attacked and defeated by the Moors, though this did not prevent him keeping possession of all those places he had reduced. In the meantime, the kingdom founded by Pelayo, now called the kingdoms of Leon, and Oviedo, continued to increase rapidly in strength, and many advantages were gained from the Moors. In the early part of the tenth century, however, the Moors attacked the city of Leon, which they reduced to ashes, and destroyed the inhabitants. Barcelona shared the same fate; Castile was reduced and depopulated; Galicia and Portugal were ravaged, and in all the Christians are said to have been defeated in fifty different engagements. The Christians, however, rose in their might, and turned upon the Moors with such fury that all their former valor and success could not save them from terrible defeat. The Christian frontier stretched at that time from the Tagus to Tudela on the Ebro; and Castile (the land of frontier castles), which had been governed from 932 by semi-independent counts, rose into a new kingdom. From this period date the constitutional liberties of Spain. The councils summoned by the king continued those of Toledo, and were as much political as ecclesiastical. Nobles and magnates were assembled to settle the succession or election of kings in 921 and 923, but the first more general Cortes was that of Leon in 1020. In 1037 the territories of Castile were formally

Constitu-  
tional  
Liberties

united to those of Leon and Oviedo, and the sovereigns were from that time styled kings of Leon and Castile, King Ferdinand the Great being the first.

Alfonso VI, son of Ferdinand, captured Toledo in 1085, which made the Christian power predominate. To the reign of Alfonso VI belongs the story of the Cid,\* of his strange history as ally alternately of Christian and Moor, and of his occupation of Valencia from 1096 to 1102. The kingdom of Portugal was founded by Henry of Burgundy in 1095.

In point of worth and real power both on land and sea, the Moors were greatly superior to the Christians, but their continual dissensions weakened them and very much facilitated the progress of the Christians. The Moorish government was weakened by changes of dynasty as well as by internal dissensions, and the Christian kings wrested from them one portion of the kingdom after another, till after the great victory which the united Christian princes gained over the Moors in 1222 at Tolosa, in Sierra Morena, there remained to them only the kingdom of Grenada,

\*Cid Campeador, the name, or rather names, by which the most renowned Spanish warrior of the eleventh century is best known. By his Moorish vassals he was called "Sid-i" (my lord), which the Spanish translated by Mio Cid, and a victory in his youth over a Navarrese champion in single combat gave him the title of Campeador. His real name was Rodrigo, or Ruy, Diaz (*i. e.*, son of Diego). He was a Castilian noble by birth, seventh in descent from Nuno Rasura, who was also ancestor of the royal line of Castile. He was born either at Burgos or at Bivar near it, about the year 1040. From 1065 to 1072 he was nominally alferrez, or "ancient," but virtually commander of the forces to Sancho II of Castile in the wars in which that king wrested the kingdoms of Leon and Galicia from his brothers. In 1071 Sancho was treacherously slain at the siege of Zamora, and as he left no heir, the Castilians had to acknowledge Alfonso, the banished king of Leon. As a conciliatory measure, Alfonso gave his cousin, Ximena, daughter of the count of Oviedo, to the Cid in marriage, but afterward, in 1081, when he found himself firmly seated on the throne, yielding to his own feelings of resentment, and incited by the Leonese nobles, he banished him from the kingdom. At the head of a large body of followers, the Cid betook himself to Moctadir of the Beni Hud, the so-called king of Saragossa, to whom, and to his son and grandson, he rendered important services against their enemies, the king of Aragon and the count of Barcelona. In conjunction with Mostain, grandson of Moctadir, he invaded Valencia in 1088, but afterward carried on operations on his own account, and finally, after a long siege, made himself master of the city in June, 1094. The Almoravides, then in possession of south and central Spain, twice sent large armies against him, but were each time routed with great loss. For five years he reigned like an independent sovereign over the fairest and richest territory in the peninsula, but in July, 1099, he died suddenly, of grief the Arabic annals say, at the news that some of his men had been defeated. His widow held out for two years longer, and then retired, carrying with her the embalmed body of the Cid, which for ten years sat enthroned beside the high altar at San Pedro de Cardefia, near Burgos.

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The Cid

Progress  
 Against  
 Moors

Ferdi-  
 nand and  
 Isabella

Cid Cam-  
 peador

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which was likewise obliged to acknowledge the Castilian supremacy in 1246, and was finally conquered by Ferdinand and Isabella. By the marriage of Isabella, the heir to the crown of Castile, to Ferdinand of Aragon, in 1469, began the modern history of Spain.

The two cities thus united retained their own laws, customs, and administration, but their gradual fusion was promoted and largely accomplished by Cardinal Ximenes. To strengthen the central government and curtail the power of the nobility, the Santa Hermandad, or Holy Brotherhood, was formed in 1476, to act as the administrators of justice. The Inquisition\* was instituted in 1481 to promote religious orthodoxy and unity; the Jews were expelled



ALHAMBRA, GATE OF JUSTICE

for heterodoxy, and the Moors were completely subjugated by the conquest of Grenada in 1492, and afterward expelled. Henceforth the Moors existed in the peninsula on sufferance only, while the Christians were gathering their forces for a final blow. Small as were the resources left the Moors, they were weakened still more by dissensions in the ruling families. Boabdil, the last king of Grenada, would have made terms with Castile, but in this he was most stren-

uously opposed by members of the court. Alhama was taken in 1482; Ronda in 1485; Malaga in 1487; Basa in 1488, and the Spanish sovereigns with an army of 100,000 men laid siege to Grenada in 1491. On January 2, 1492, the city surrendered.

Columbus discovered America October 12, 1492, and in 1512, after the death of Isabella, Ferdinand wrested Spanish Navarre from its Gascon king. The colonial power of Spain was soon greatly extended, and henceforth the history of Spain is no longer exclusively Spanish, but also European. The whole of the peninsula, except Portugal, was united under one rule, though true political unity was very far from having been attained. Aragon and Navarre still preserved their separate Cortes, privileges, and

Fall of  
Granada

Colonial  
Power of  
Spain

\* See Vol. III, p. 1189, footnote Inquisition.



regnal titles; the Basque provinces continued almost a republic under Spanish suzerains. Castile, being a royal power, had been greatly strengthened.

When Ferdinand died in 1516, his daughter Joanna, who had married Philip, the son of Maximilian I, succeeded to the kingdom of Aragon, and her son Charles first became regent and ultimately king of the whole of Spain. He was also ruler of the Netherlands, which he inherited from his father, and in 1519 was proclaimed Charles V, emperor of Germany. As champion of the Catholic church, he successively declared war on the French, the German Protestants, and the Turks; but as the expense of this vast policy overtaxed his own kingdom, and was only partially met by the wealth acquired by the conquest of Mexico in 1518, and of Peru in 1531, he finally retired in despair, and was succeeded in 1556 by his son, Philip II.



QUEEN ISABELLA

The internal policy of this monarch was characterized by severe absolutism in matters political and religious, an extension of the power of the Inquisition, and a unification of the peninsula by the conquest of Portugal.

When Philip II ascended the throne of Spain, her dominions were at their greatest. Spain, to which Portugal was added in 1580; Sicily, a great part of Italy, Holland, and Belgium; the whole of North America, except the English and French possessions; the whole of South America after 1580; the Philippines and other islands in the East, and possessions in Africa, formed the first

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Spain's  
 Zenith

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Decline

empire on which it could be said the sun never set. By his foreign policy he caused a revolt in the Netherlands, and lost the northern provinces. He failed to establish Spanish influence in France, and sustained defeat from the English by the destruction of the Invincible Armada. He left a sadly exhausted but still enormous empire to his son Philip III, who succeeded him in 1599.

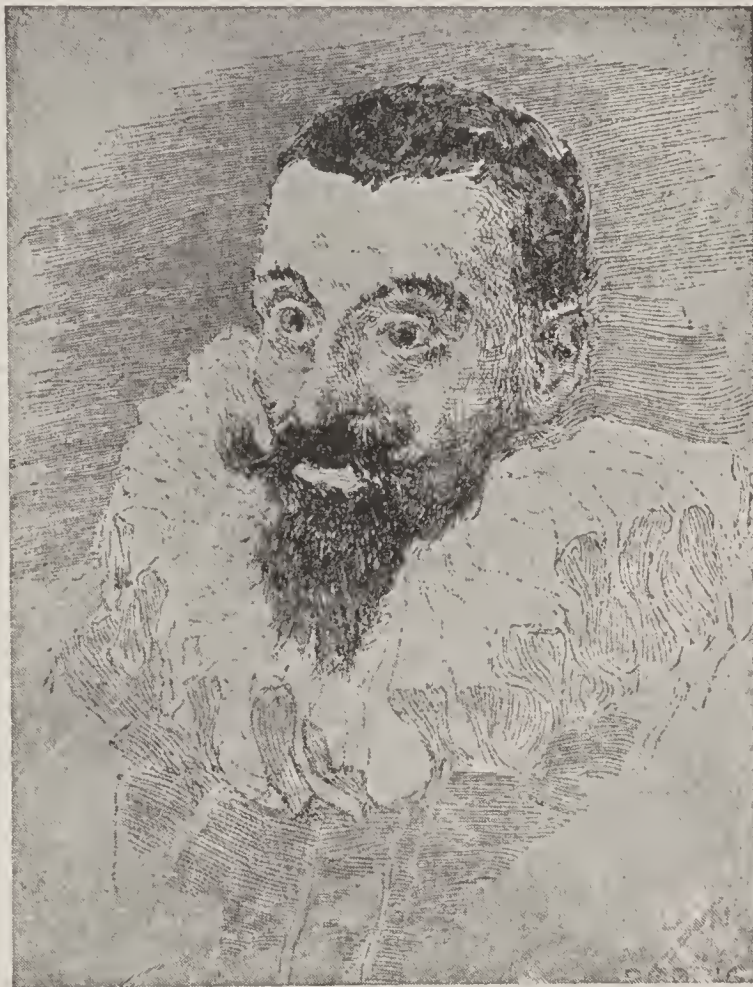


ONE OF THE GATES OF TOLEDO

Spain fell from her first greatness to be scarcely a second-rate power. Internal exhaustion reacted upon the external power. From every war in which she engaged, Spain emerged a loser, and gradually the magnificent empire was torn to pieces. France seized upon Roussillon, Cerdagne, Franche-Comte, and the greater part of the southern Netherlands; Richelieu used French influence in Italy as a counterpoise to that of Spain;

Holland enforced a tardy recognition of her hard-won independence; Portugal became once more a separate kingdom, and Catalonia showed a very doubtful submission; the English and Dutch aggrandized themselves at the expense of the Spanish colonies and commerce. This decline was due to causes maturing under Charles V and Philip II, and to the feeble government of succeeding kings.

From the first Philip III entrusted the cares of state to his favorite, the Duke of Lerma, and contented himself with the performance of religious duties and the ceremonies of a stately court. The Duke of Lerma was the real sovereign. The ability of Spinola, who recovered Ostend in 1604, and of the captains trained in the school of Flanders, upheld the prestige of the Spanish arms for awhile, but her power was declining. The expulsion of the Moriscos, an agricultural population, in 1609 weakened her still more. In 1618 Lerma fell from power, but no improvement took place. Philip IV succeeded to the throne in 1621, but he proved to be as incapable of governing as was his father. Under Philip III Spain had escaped any very great humiliation except the recognition of the united provinces, which was inevitable. The reign of Philip IV (1621-65) was one long series of misfortunes and losses. This difference was due, not so much to the inferiority of the younger king's character, though this existed, as to the fact that the weak and vacillating regency of Marie de



DON PACHECO, THE ORIGINAL OF DON QUIXOTE

Medici gave way in 1624 to the vigorous government of Richelieu. Philip was but seventeen on his ascension, and like his predecessor, he refused to be burdened with the control of the government. This was entrusted to Olivarez, a man of ability and energy, but no match for his great contemporary in France. In foreign politics Olivarez set himself to support the religious and dynastic claims of the Austrian-Hapsburgs, while at home he aimed at further aggrandizement of the monarchy. The alliance with Austria provoked the hostility of Richelieu, who expelled the Spaniards from the Valtelline, and thwarted them in the Mantuan succession.

At last in 1635 open war commenced between France and Spain,

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Philip IV  
and His  
Losses

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which from the first went in favor of the former power. The haughty and centralizing policy of the emperor brought about civil war in Catalonia, Andalusia, and Naples, and the French were not slow to take advantage of this domestic rebellion. From 1640 to 1656 Catalonia was a French rather than a Spanish province. Rebellion had further resulted in encouraging disaffection in Portugal. The Portuguese had never forgotten their former inde-



FOUNTAIN OF CYBELE, PRADO PARK, MADRID

France  
 and  
 Spain  
 at War

pendence, and endured the Spanish yoke with ill-concealed repugnance. In 1640 a revolution was successfully accomplished, and John, duke of Braganza, was raised to the throne as John IV. Here again Richelieu took advantage of internal disunion, and mainly through French assistance the independence of Portugal was assured after a struggle of twenty-eight years. Owing to these disasters Olivarez was overthrown in 1643. Don Louis de Haro succeeded him, inheriting but not mastering his difficulties.

Charles II, son of Philip IV, came to the throne in 1665. This prince was feeble both in mind and body, and the country continued to decline, and at his death in 1700, without heir, there began the war of the Spanish Succession.\* The succession to the throne lay between the Hapsburgs, whose claim was upheld by Leo I, and the Bourbons, whose claim was maintained by Louis XIV. After a prolonged European war, it was agreed by the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, to acknowledge the Bourbon Philip V† as king of Spain,

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War of  
Spanish  
Succession

\*Shortly before the death of Charles II of Spain, without issue of collateral male heirs, several competitors laid claim to the throne, the two principal being the dauphin of France, son of Charles's eldest sister, and the Emperor Leopold of Austria, who claimed, in right of his mother, Mary Ann, daughter of Philip III, of Spain. The other powers were greatly interested in this question, since the union of either France or Austria with Spain would soon endanger the balance of power in Europe. After much negotiation Philip of Anjou was put forward by Louis XIV to represent the French claim, and Leopold nominated his second son, Charles, as his substitute, both declaring that Spain should never be incorporated with their respective dominions. The king of Spain eventually recognized Philip as his heir, and on the king's death in November, 1700, Philip was proclaimed at Madrid. He was recognized by most of the European powers except Austria, which in 1701 began a war against France; and the arrogant and aggressive behavior of Louis, and his recognition of James II as king of England, caused England, Holland, and Austria to combine against him and Philip in 1702. Prince Eugene of Austria had already opened the contest in 1701, and had defeated the French at Carpi (July) and at Chiari (September). In 1702-3 Marlborough, at the head of an allied Anglo-Dutch-German army, reduced the French strongholds along the Meuse and the Low Countries. In 1704 Marlborough and Eugene joined their forces and defeated the Franco-Bavarian army at Blenheim (August 13). Barcelona was captured by an English force in 1705, and the earl of Peterborough gained some brilliant success in this quarter. On May 23, 1706, the French were defeated by Marlborough at Ramilies, and at Turin by the Austrians in September. In April, 1707, a Franco-Spanish force under the duke of Berwick routed an Anglo-Portuguese army at Almanza, Spain. In the following year Marlborough and Eugene reunited their forces, and severely defeated the French at Oudenarde (July 11). The resources of France were now almost crippled, and Louis made overtures of peace which were rejected. The struggle was renewed with great vigor; Villars, with a French army of nearly 100,000 men, proceeded against Marlborough and Eugene, but he was defeated by the allies at Malplaquet on September 11, 1709. In Spain the French had entirely gained the upper hand by next year. The war dragged on until the accession in 1711 of the Archduke Charles to the Austrian throne changed the whole aspect of affairs, and the war, so far as Britain, France, and Holland were concerned, was brought to an end by the peace of Utrecht in 1713. Peace between Britain and Spain soon followed, Britain gaining Gibraltar (taken in 1704 by Admiral Rooke) and Minorca. Latterly the Emperor Charles, forsaken by his allies, was reluctantly compelled to sign a treaty at Baden on September 7, 1714, recognizing Philip V as king of Spain.

War of  
Spanish  
Succession

† Philip V's first act was to alter the law of Spanish regal succession in accordance with the Salic Law of France, a change productive of serious consequences later. The Salic law is a collection of the popular laws of the Salic or Salian Franks, purporting to have been committed to writing in the fifth century, while the people were yet heathens. There

The Salic  
Law

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on condition that the Netherlands and the Italian provinces were given to Austria, while England claimed Gibraltar and Minorca.

Under the able administration of Cardinal Alvaroni, Spain now regained a large part of her power in Europe. This revival was continued under Ferdinand VI, who succeeded to the throne in 1746. His choice of ministers was good, and his avoiding war gave the country an opportunity of internal development. This led to the greater reforms of his half-brother, Charles III, 1758–88.



CERVANTES

He had already been successively duke of Parma and king of Naples and Sicily, and his was the most flourishing of all the Bourbon reigns. He brought with him his Italian ministers, Grimaldi and Esquilache, who made the policy of the early part of his reign subservient to that of France. Afterward he gathered around him the most intelligent Spaniards of his day. Superstitiously religious though he was in private life, his reign was yet notable for the expulsion of the Jesuits in 1757, for reasons which have never been clearly explained. The years 1764–66 were marked by reforms in the administration of

exist several Latin texts of this code, and considerable obscurity rests over its history. It relates principally to the compensation and punishment of crimes, and there is a chapter containing provisions regarding the succession to what are called Salic Lands, which seems to have been inserted at a later date. Although the Frankish law did not in general exclude females, the succession to these Salic lands, whatever they were, was confined to males, probably from the importance of securing the military services of the chief proprietors. It was but a doubtful analogy that led the rule of succession to Salic lands to be extended to the succession to the French crown, and it seems to have been only in the fourteenth century that the exclusion of females from the throne become an established principle. The accession of Philip the Long was probably the first occasion on which it received public sanction, and the fact that Edward III rested his claim on female succession doubtless led to that instance being regarded as an unquestionable precedent.

the colonies, where great abuses existed. Only \$840,000 out of a revenue of four millions really entered the treasury. These revenues rose shortly from six millions to twenty millions for Mexico alone. His home policy was equally successful; new manufactures were established, roads were improved, better commercial treaties were made, banks were introduced, and population increased with wealth.

Through fear of the movement spreading to her own colonies, Spain wisely remained neutral during the war of independence in the United States. The foreign events of the greatest importance were a fruitless expedition to Algiers in 1775, the recovery of Minorca in 1782, and the fruitless siege and blockade of Gibraltar, 1779-82. The great defect of this reign was that nearly all the reforms were



ENTRANCE, NATIONAL MUSEUM AND LIBRARY, MADRID

based rather on theories of French encyclopedists than on the real needs and the principles of liberty still existing in Spain. The educated classes and the common people were far apart. Charles IV (1788-1808) retained for a time his father's ministers; but soon substituted Godoy, whose unbounded influence over Charles and his queen, limitless greed, and shameless subservience to the French, especially to Napoleon, bargained for himself half of Portugal as an independent kingdom, or a hereditary viceroyalty in America.

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On the outbreak of the French Revolution, in spite of ties of blood and of old treaties, Charles IV was the last to protest



THRONE ROOM, ROYAL PALACE, MADRID

against the overthrow of royalty and the execution of Louis XVI. A campaign was then begun on the Pyrenean frontier in 1793, with some success at first, changed to defeat as soon as the repub-



lic could spare forces to turn against her Southern neighbor. In 1795 the peace of Basel gained for Godoy his title of Prince of Peace; and the treaty of Ildefonso (1796) bound Spain to an offensive and defensive alliance with France against England. The result was disastrous. In 1797 Jarvis won the naval battle of St. Vincent; Trinidad was taken, and Cadiz bombarded. But Nelson was repulsed at Teneriffe. Puerto Rico was preserved, and the expeditions of Beresford and Whitelocke in La Plata eventually failed. The commerce and communications of Spain with her colonies was almost wholly destroyed. A scandalous quarrel between Charles IV and his son Ferdinand (1807) augmented the hatred of the nation against Godoy. All three parties appealed to Napoleon for his arbitration and intervention. In view of the utter degradation of the crown many of the best men in Spain believed that a short rule by Napoleon might stem the tide of corruption. The royal family and the favorite attempted flight, but this was prevented by a popular outbreak at Aranjuez. Godoy was hurled from power. Charles IV abdicated in favor of his son Ferdinand VII, March 17, 1808. French troops entered Madrid. Charles IV, his queen, and son Ferdinand, with Godoy, were summoned to Bayonne. There the crown was renounced by Ferdinand in favor of his father, who, in turn, ceded it to Napoleon. But on May 2, an unsuccessful outbreak in Madrid had begun the war of liberation, and Napoleon had to face a nation in arms. June 6, Joseph Bonaparte was proclaimed king of Spain. Nominally he reigned till 1813, but the Juntas, the representatives of the nation, acknowledged only the captive Ferdinand VII.

While these operations were going on, the patriots were making great efforts to reform the government, and to give more real liberty to the people. The task was difficult; the absolutist party was still strong, and the liberals were divided; but the Constitution of Cadiz of 1812 is really the commencement of modern Spain. When Ferdinand returned in March, 1814, he found the absolutists still powerful enough to enable him to reject the constitution to which he had sworn, to re-establish the Inquisition, and to remove all restrictions to his rule. An insurrection headed by Riego and Quiroga forced him to accept the constitution from 1820 to 1823, but through the mistakes of the liberals, with the aid of 100,000 French soldiers under the Duc d'Aumale,

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Joseph  
 Bona-  
 parte  
 King of  
 Spain

## DIVISION III

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Don  
CarlosSpain  
Loses  
America

he again demonstrated his authority, and remained absolute master of the government till his death.

In December, 1829, the childless Ferdinand married his fourth wife, Christina of Naples. Up to this time his brother,\* Don Carlos, had been considered heir. In prospect of issue, Ferdinand promulgated (March 31, 1830) the pragmatic law of Charles IV (1789), restoring the old law of Spanish succession. In September 1832 he revoked the sanction, but again recalled his revocation.



DON CARLOS

Don Carlos was exiled to Portugal. April 4, 1833, the Cortes acknowledged Ferdinand's daughter Isabella as heir to the throne, with her mother as regent. Ferdinand died September 29, 1833. During his reign the whole of Spanish continental America was lost, and of all the vast colonies there remained only Cuba, Puerto Rico, the Philippine, Caroline, and Mariana Islands, Fernando Po, the Canaries, and a few ports and towns in Africa and the Straits.

The opinion of Europe, which in 1823 had been conservative, and had allowed Ferdinand to regain absolutism by French help, had in 1833-40 become liberal, and this, with English help, enabled Christina to vanquish Don Carlos; but her government was far

\* Don Carlos, born 1818, was better known as the Count de Montemolin. This second pretender made an attempt in 1849 to pass under a disguise through France into Spain, but failed. In 1860 an attempt was made at Tolosa in Valencia to stir up another Carlist insurrection, in consequence of which the Count de Montemolin and his brother Ferdinand were arrested, but liberated after they had signed a renunciation of all their claims to the Spanish throne. He died in 1861. The next representative of the Carlist pretension was his nephew, Don Carlos, born March 30, 1848.

from strong; revolts and pronunciamientos, both by liberals and conservatives, were continually occurring. Monks were massacred in Madrid and Catalonia in 1834-35; church property was confiscated. The constitution of 1812, enlarged in 1836, was sworn to by Isabella on attaining her majority in 1843. The marriage of the queen to her cousin Francisco de Assisi, and of her sister to the Duc de Montpensier, only weakened her position. Successive ministers rose or fell from power, all inefficient or corrupt. Narvaez in 1844 showed some energy. O'Donnell conducted successfully a campaign in Morocco in 1859-60.

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CADIZ

On the whole, liberalism advanced; republicanism appeared after 1848. In disgust at corrupt administration the country accepted a pronunciamiento by Prim and Topete at Cadiz in 1868. Isabella fled to France, and there resigned in favor of her son Alfonso XII. The program of the military leaders was simply destructive. A provisional government of two years (the chief event of which was to furnish the pretext for the Franco-German war of 1870) ended in the choice of Amadeus of Savoy as king. In 1873 he resigned the crown. The republic which followed showed the wide differences between the Federalists and the conservative Republicans. This occasioned the second Carlist war,

Liberal  
Advance

**DIVISION III** 1872-76. On the waning of their cause, Isabella's son, Alphonso XII was proclaimed king, December 29, 1874.

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**SPAIN**

**Alfonso  
XIII**

February 27, 1876, Don Carlos withdrew to France. Mainly through the talents of his minister, Canovas del Castillo, Alfonso's reign of eleven years (1874-85) was a time of relative prosperity and improvement, and enabled his queen Christina quietly to succeed as regent for his posthumous son Alphonso XIII, born May 17, 1886.

On the death of Alphonso XII, November 25, 1885, Canovas del Castillo resigned, and a new ministry was formed having Señor Sagasta at its head. On the first of December, 1887, the infant king Alphonso XIII, the posthumous son of the late ruler, was enthroned with great ceremony at the opening of the Cortes, the queen regent, Christina, however, continuing to rule in his stead.

**Reforms** May 29, 1889, trial by jury was for the first time put in force in Spain.\* In July, 1890, Señor Sagasta and his ministry resigned, whereupon Castillo, the political rival of the outgoing premier formed a coalition ministry, which, however, came to an end December 10, 1892, Señor Sagasta again being made prime minister. Although Castillo was reported to have retired from public life in July of 1893, he was found at the head of a conservative ministry which was formed immediately following the resignation of the Sagasta cabinet (March, 1895).

**Recent  
Events**

In 1891 there were severe inundations in central and southern Spain, as a result of which over 100,000 persons were rendered homeless. The following year there were several anarchistic disturbances which resulted in the execution of a number of the anarchists. In 1893 again anarchists threw a dynamite bomb in a theater at Barcelona, which resulted in the death of thirty people. Eighty others were injured.

**Philip-  
pine  
Uprising**

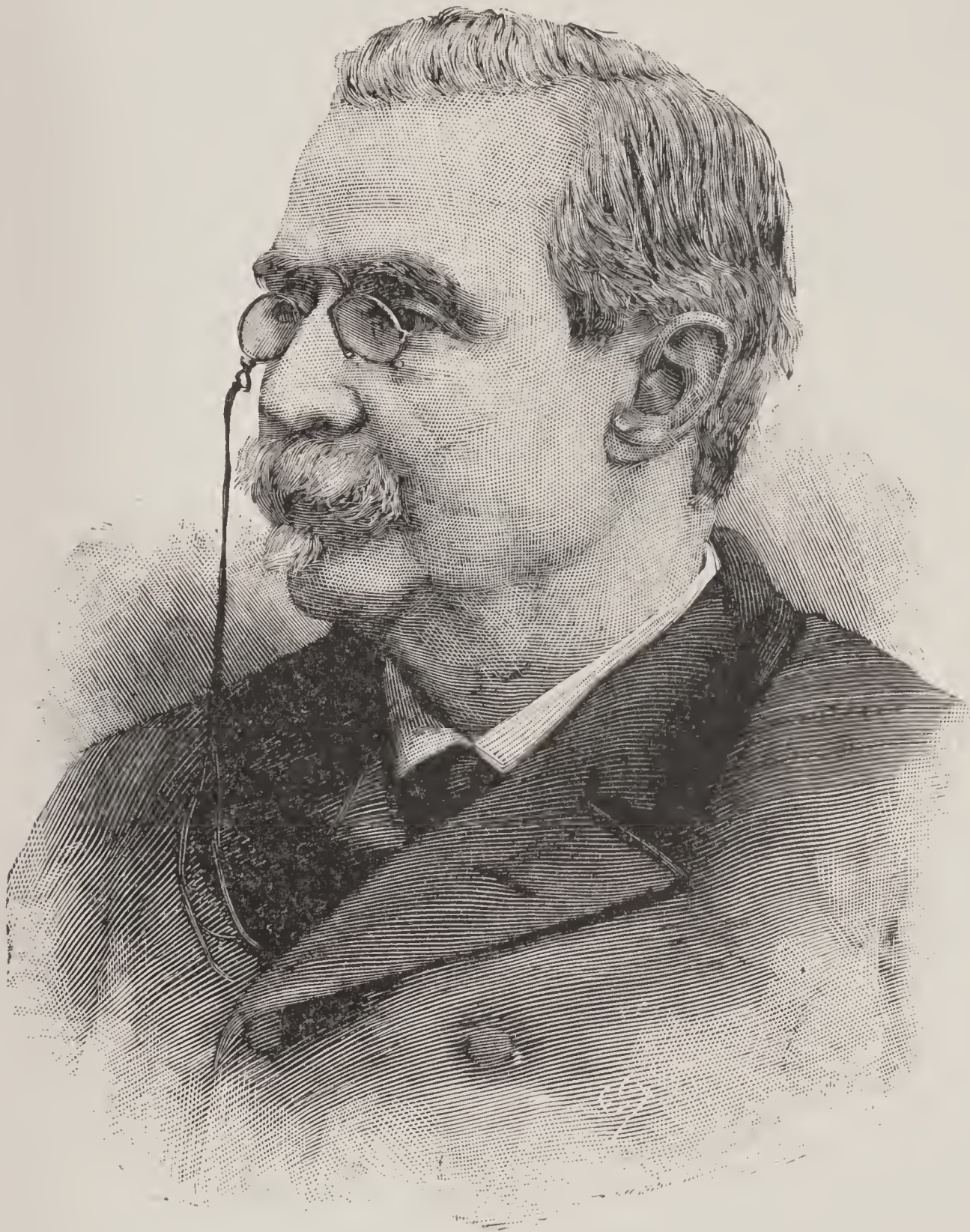
In 1894 the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands manifested

**Govern-  
ment**

\*The government of Spain is a hereditary monarchy founded on the constitution of 1876. The Cortes consists of two bodies—the Senate, one third of the members of which sit by hereditary right, one third are appointed by the sovereign for life, and one third elective. The Chamber of Deputies is elected at the rate of one member to every 50,000 inhabitants. Universal suffrage (1890) and trial by jury have lately been introduced. The provinces are administered by governors and provincial deputations, and the towns by alcaides and municipal councils. All these and other employees are under the control of the government, who are thus able to manipulate elections, except in the large towns.

great hostility to the Spanish authorities, and several conflicts occurred. The Spanish military station at Lepanto was taken in March of that year and sacked. The insurgents suffered a severe

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SENOR CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO

defeat in the retreat. Again in 1895 the Malayan Mohammedans were defeated by the Spanish troops, and the leaders of the insurrection were among those killed. In 1896 the Spanish won another victory over the inhabitants. On the 8th of August, 1897, the Spanish nation received a severe blow when the premier,

**Canovas  
 Assassi-  
 nated**

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Señor Canovas del Castillo, was shot and killed by an Italian assassin, who had espoused the views of the anarchists. No evidence was adduced to show that his action was ordered by any conspiring group or committee, although it was first claimed that Angiolillo, the assassin, was the agent of Spanish anarchists seeking revenge for the harsh treatment to which many scores of persons arrested at Barcelona on suspicion had been subjected, in the dungeons of Montjuich, after the dastardly bomb-throwing episode of May, 1896. Canovas had been identified with Spanish political life for many years, and to him more than to any one else, perhaps, should be accorded the credit of bringing back the present dynasty.

Cuban  
 Revolt

On the death of the Spanish premier the friends of Cuba asserted that the war would come to an early end. The effect, however, was rather to unite the Spanish nation. The queen at once appointed the minister of war, General Azcarraga, to serve at the head of the cabinet. This cabinet resigned September 29, and a few days later the queen regent asked Señor Sagasta to form a new Spanish ministry, which he did, and entered upon the duties October 4. The ministry immediately recalled General Weyler from Cuba, and sent in his stead General Ramon Blanco. The latter issued a proclamation to the Cubans upon his arrival at Havana, which was in part as follows :

“ To the inhabitants of Cuba : I have come to you again with as much good-will and sincerity as ever. I will feel happy if, when I depart this time, I leave behind the pleasant recollection of having brought you peace.

“ As a faithful interpreter of the will and the purpose of her majesty, the queen, and her responsible government, it is my purpose to follow a broad policy of expansion, of generosity, and forgiveness, tending to re-establish through liberality fraternity among all the inhabitants of the country, and to cement their adhesion to the mother country.

“ While those who remain within the law will find security and protection in their homes, I will, painful as it may be to me, punish with all the energy and harshness of the force of arms those who ungratefully or obstinately should pretend to perpetuate the horrors of war in this rich and fertile soil which Spain discovered and raised to the greatest level of prosperity which any country ever attained.

“ I trust to see this insurrection crushed and subdued. . . . Let there be war to the implacable enemies of the Spanish people, and protection to all those who take shelter under the flag of Spain.”

The provisional government of Cuba was installed at Havana January 1. The insurgents refused to have anything to do with it, and continued the war as before. On the 8th of February, a letter was published written by Señor Dupuy de Lome, Spanish minister to the United States, in which President McKinley was spoken of disparagingly. The result was the resignation of the minister. On February 14, 1898, Señor Polo y Bernabe was appointed to succeed Dupuy de Lome. The elections in Spain resulted favorably to the Sagasta (liberal) ministry. This ministry with some few changes controlled affairs during the Spanish-American war. (See Vol. X.)

As a result of this war, Spain had no longer any need of a colonial representation in the cabinet, and that portfolio was dispensed with. The war left the finances of the country in a most deplorable condition, the total indebtedness being \$1,900,000,000. During the peace negotiations at Paris in October, 1898, the Spanish members exerted all their powers in an effort to have either Cuba or the United States assume the debt incurred in carrying on the war. In this they were unsuccessful.

The conclusion of the war with the United States put an end not only to the Spanish troubles in Cuba and the Philippine Islands, but it also practically ended the influence of Carlism in Spain.

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THE INFANTA EULALIA, THE KING'S AUNT

Result of  
Spanish  
War

## DIVISION III

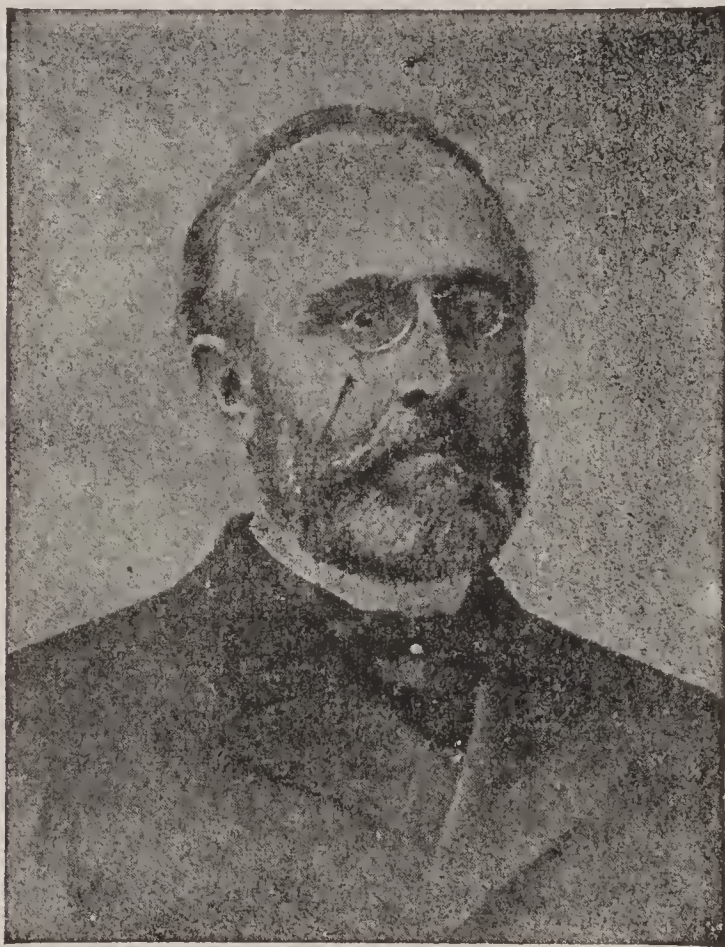
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**Sagasta  
Resigned**

On the 1st of March, 1899, the Sagasta ministry resigned. This was due partly to the unsuccessful and disastrous war which the out-going cabinet had conducted and partly to the peculiar construction of Spanish politics, the prevailing idea governing which is to carefully apportion national responsibility between the two great parties — conservatives and liberals. The conservatives were in control at the death of Canovas. If they had desired to retain the rule, they could easily have done so; but rather than

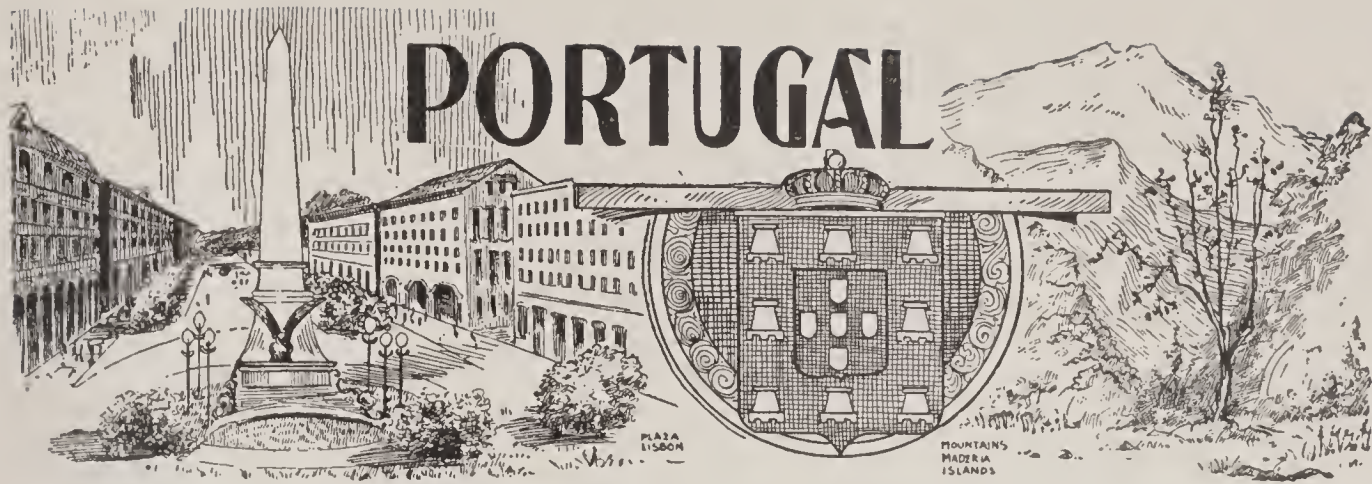


SENOR SILVELA, THE PREMIER OF SPAIN

bear the entire brunt of the Cuban situation, which even at that time had brought nothing but misfortune to the mother country, and was assuming hopeless proportions, they thought that it would be best to fasten the responsibility for the remainder of the trouble upon the liberals. Accordingly Sagasta's war cabinet was for the most part liberal. This ministry conducted the war with the United States, and concluded the peace negotiations immediately following. Then, when Spain had lost all her colonies and her navy, a new

policy, that of internal reform, was promulgated, and it was to follow out this idea that Don Francisco Silvela and his conservative ministry were entrusted on the 1st of March, 1899, with the Spanish portfolios. The formal treaty of peace with the United States was signed in April, 1899.





## THE HISTORY OF PORTUGAL

[*Authorities:* Morse Stephens, *Portugal* (1891); M' Murdo, *History of Portugal* (1888); Schaefer, *Geschichte von Portugal* (5 vols. 1836-54); works by the native historians Herculano (1848-57), Da Silva (1860-71), Coelho (1874), and Da Luz Soriano (1866-82); R. H. Major, *Life of Prince Henry of Portugal* (1868); and Carnota, *Memoirs of Duke of Saldanha* (1880); *The Statesman's Year-Book* (1899).]



**P**ORTUGAL is a kingdom of Europe on the west side of the Iberian Peninsula. Its eastern and northern boundaries are Spain, its western and southern, the Atlantic Ocean. It is divided into eight provinces and has an area of 35,540 square miles.

The earliest accounts of the western portions of the Spanish Peninsula are derived from the Romans, who followed the Carthaginians (138 B. C.) as conquerors of the western Iberians and Celts. Under Augustus the peninsula was divided into three provinces, one of which, Lusitania, has until quite recent times, been regarded as nearly identical with the present kingdom of Portugal. But the Augustan province of Lusitania lay wholly on the south side of the Tagus.

The history of Portugal was in early times coincident with that of the Iberian Peninsula as a whole; and, along with the rest of the peninsula, Portugal was thoroughly Romanized in the days of the empire. After the Romans withdrew, the peninsula was overrun by Visigoths from the North, and at a later period by Saracens from the South. Under Roman, Visigothic, and Saracenic rule the people were prosperous and well governed, but became enervated by luxury and unwarlike ease. About the middle of the eleventh century northern Portugal fell under the sway of Ferdinand I, of Castile. In 1094 Henry of Burgundy, who had married a natural

Early  
History

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 PORTUGAL

Portugal  
 Inde-  
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daughter of Alphonso VI, son and successor of Ferdinand, received from that monarch the country of Portugal (from the Minho to the Tagus) as a dependent fief. Under his widow, Theresa (1114-28), the country acquired a sense of national unity and a certain measure of independence. Their son, Alphonso I, made Portugal an independent kingdom (1143),— through the victory of a picked body of Portuguese knights over a picked body of Castilian knights in a tournament,— and gained signal advantages over the Arabs, whom he fought for twenty-five years, his greatest exploits being the victory in the plain of Ourique, in Alemtejo, in 1139, the capture (with the help of English crusaders) of Lisbon in 1147, and of Alcacer do Sal in 1158.

Portugal  
 a Mari-  
 time  
 Power

The Burgundian House, which continued in possession of the throne for 440 years, gave to Portugal some of its best kings. The immediate successors of Alphonso I were engaged in incessant wars against the Moslems and in severe struggles with the clergy and nobles, who were always ready to combine against the sovereign; but, although often baffled in their attempts to uphold the independence of the crown, the dignity of the kingdom was, on the whole, well maintained by the representatives of this family, who were, moreover, distinguished as the promoters and champions of the maritime glory of Portugal. Sancho (died 1211), the builder of cities, especially distinguished himself by his care for the material welfare of his kingdom, and by his bold fight against the claims of Pope Innocent III and that pope's supporters, the Portuguese bishops. His son, Alphonso II, summoned the first Portuguese Cortes. Alphonso III (1248-79) conquered the southern province of the kingdom in 1250, and made Portugal what it practically is in area at the present time. His son, Diniz (Denis), must be regarded as the founder of Portuguese commerce and mercantile enterprise. He likewise encouraged agriculture and the industrial arts, and protected learning, in furtherance of which he founded in 1300 a university at Lisbon, subsequently transferred to Coimbra. Diniz was succeeded in 1325 by his son, Alphonso IV, surnamed the Brave, whose reign was almost wholly occupied in wars with the Castilians and the Moslems. It was during his reign that the friendly commercial relations with England began.

With Alphonso's grandson, Ferdinand I, the legitimate branch

of the Burgundian House became extinct in 1383. After some disturbances Ferdinand's illegitimate brother, John, was recognized by the Cortes as king in 1385; four months later the allied Portuguese and English army won at Aljubarrota a glorious victory over the Castilians, who had invaded the country. John's reign (died 1433) was eventful, not merely on account of the internal reforms which he introduced, and of his steady maintenance of the prerogatives of the crown, but chiefly as being associated with the first of those important geographical discoveries and commercial enterprises which made Portugal for a while the greatest maritime power of Europe. During this reign, on May 9, 1386, the treaty of Windsor cemented the firm alliance and national friendship between Portugal and England, that was further confirmed by the marriage of King John to the daughter of John of Gaunt (1387).

To John's son, Henry the Navigator (died 1460), is due the merit of having organized several voyages of discovery, which culminated in the acquisition of the Azores, Madeira, Cape de Verde, and other islands. At this time, too, the slave-trade began, the Portuguese bringing captive negroes to cultivate the large estates of their southern provinces. During the reign of John II (1481-95), who broke the power of the feudal nobles, Bartholomeu Diaz doubled (1486) the Cape of Good Hope; and Vasco da Gama, in the reign of John's successor, Manoel, successfully achieved the passage by sea to India in 1497. The discovery of Brazil (1500) and the settlements made there and on the western coast of India by Albuquerque increased the maritime power and fame of Portugal, which were further extended under Manoel's son, John III, who ascended the throne in 1521.

At this period Portugal ranked as one of the most powerful monarchies in Europe, and Lisbon, the great distributing center of the products of the East, as one of its most important commercial cities. Sudden as this prosperity had been, its decline was almost more abrupt, and may, in a great measure, be accounted for by the destruction of the old nobility, the extensive emigration that went on to the new colonies, the expulsion of the numerous wealthy and industrious Jews, on whose able financial management the commercial interests of the Portuguese were largely dependent, and the introduction of the Inquisition (1536), and of

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the Jesuits (1540), whose baneful supremacy gave rise to much tyranny and oppression, both in the colonies and at home, and in various ways stamped out the old spirit of the people, and crippled the resources of the nation. The influence of the Jesuits over John's grandson, Sebastian (1557), was responsible for the defeat of the Portuguese, and the capture and death of their young king, at the battle of Alcazar al-Kebir in Africa in 1578. And the extinction of the old Burgundian line in 1580, after the brief reign of Sebastian's uncle, Cardinal Henry, plunged the country into difficulties and misfortunes. After a struggle for the throne between half a dozen candidates, none of whom found favor with the nation at large,—they clung to the delusive hope that Sebastian was still alive, and would return from the hands of his Moorish captors,—Philip II of Spain succeeded in securing to himself the crown of Portugal, and annexing the kingdom to the Spanish monarchy. This involved it in the ruinous wars of Spain against England, in the Low Countries, and in Germany, while the Dutch and English, in retaliation for Spanish aggressions at home, attacked and seized the Portuguese possessions in the Indian Archipelago and in South America.

At length the insolence of Philip IV's minister, Olivarez, brought matters to a crisis; and in December, 1640, after a forced union of sixty years, Portugal was freed, by a bold and successful rising of the nobles, from all connection with Spain, and the Duke of Braganza, a descendant of the old royal family, was placed on the throne (1641) under the title of John IV.

Portugal  
 Inde-  
 pendent,  
 1668

The war with Spain, which was the natural result of this act, under the guidance of the famous Count Schomberg (who fell at Boyne battle, 1690), and with the assistance of English troops, terminated favorably to Portugal in 1668 by the treaty of Lisbon, by which the independence of Portugal was formally recognized by the Spanish government. But her ancient glory had departed; she had lost many of her colonies, and of those she still retained Brazil alone was prosperous; the nation was steeped in ignorance and bigotry; and the Portuguese, from having been one of the greatest maritime powers of Europe, became virtually a commercial dependent, rather than ally, of Great Britain.

Under the reign of Joseph I (1750–77) the genius and resolution of the minister Pombal infused temporary vigor into the adminis-

tration, and checked for a time the downward tendency of the national credit. But Pombal's efforts to rouse the people from their sloth, and infuse vigor into the government, were checked by the accession of Joseph's daughter, Maria, who, with her uncle-husband, Pedro III, allowed things to turn back into their old channels. The mental alienation of Maria led, in 1799, to the nomination of a regency under her eldest son, John. This prince, who showed considerable capacity in early life, on the outbreak of the war between Spain and France, threw himself wholly on the protection of England; and finally, when he learned that Napoleon had determined on the destruction of his dynasty, left Portugal in 1807, and transferred the seat of government to Rio de Janeiro, the capital of Brazil.

This act was immediately followed by the occupation and annexation of Portugal by the French—a measure which gave rise to the Peninsular war. The victory of Vimeira, gained by the combined English and Portuguese army in 1808, freed the land from its French assailants, and in 1816, on the death of queen Maria, the regent succeeded to the joint crowns of Portugal and Brazil. But even after the French were driven out of the peninsula and Napoleon's power was broken forever, the new king, John VI, still continued to reside at Rio de Janeiro, leaving Portugal to be governed by English officers, Marshal Beresford and others. This gave occasion to abuses and discontent, which resulted, in 1820, in a revolution at Lisbon, and in the proclamation of a constitutional form of government, very democratic in spirit, in place of the pre-existing feudal absolutism. John hurried to Portugal, and there signed the constitution and ratified the independence of Brazil, which proclaimed his son Pedro emperor. On the death of John in 1826, Pedro IV, after organizing the government of Portugal on the model of the English parliamentary system, renounced the Portuguese crown in favor of his daughter, Maria da Gloria, a child of seven, on condition that she married her uncle Miguel. The latter, who had availed himself of every opportunity to thwart the liberal policy of his father and brother, waited only for the embarkation of the English troops to break the oath which he had taken to maintain the constitution, and, gathering around him the clergy, the army officers, the old nobility, and all who were in favor of the former order

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Tem-  
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Crowns  
of  
Portugal  
and  
Brazil

DIVISION III of things, was through their aid declared king by the Cortes in  
 EUROPE June, 1826.

ANCIENT AND MODERN Then ensued a period of indescribable confusion and misrule.  
 PORTUGAL At length, in 1832, Pedro was enabled, chiefly by means of a loan  
 from Englishmen, to raise an army, and make a landing at Oporto.  
 Period of Charles Napier virtually destroyed Miguel's fleet off Cape St. Vin-  
 Misrule cent in 1833. Shortly afterward queen Maria made her entry into  
 Lisbon; and in the following year Miguel renounced all pretensions  
 to the throne, and agreed to quit Portugal. The death of Pedro  
 in the same year, after he effected several important reforms,  
 including the reintroduction of the constitution of 1826, proved a  
 heavy misfortune to Portugal, which suffered severely from the  
 mercenary rule of those who occupied places of trust about the  
 person of the young queen. Her marriage, in 1835, with August-  
 tus, Duke of Leuchtenberg, and after his death at the end of a few  
 months, her marriage with Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, were fol-  
 lowed by grave political disturbances. A branch of the democrats,  
 known as the Septembrists, from the month in which they made  
 their first decisive stand against the government, loudly demanded  
 (1836) the abrogation of the charter promulgated by Pedro (known  
 as the charter of 1826), and the restoration of the democratic  
 constitution of 1824.

Contest  
 of  
 Charters

This contest of the charters continued through the entire reign of  
 Maria, and party feeling ran so high that it resulted more than  
 once in hostilities. The government\* was alternately in the hands

Govern-  
 ment

\* The fundamental law of the kingdom of Portugal is the "Constitutional Charter" granted by King Pedro IV, April 29, 1826, altered by the additional Acts, dated July 5, 1852, July 24, 1885, and by laws of March 28 and September 25, 1895. The crown is hereditary in the female as well as in the male line; but with preference of the male in case of equal birthright. The Constitution recognizes four powers in the state, the legislative, the executive, the judicial, and the "moderating" authority, the last of which is vested in the sovereign. There are two legislative chambers, the "Camara dos Pares," or House of Peers, and the "Camara dos Deputados," or House of Deputies, which are conjunctively called the Cortes Geraes. The law of 1885 provided for the abolition of hereditary peerages, though only by a gradual process. The law of 1895, made without the concurrence of the parliament, alters considerably the past constitution of the two houses. This law fixed the number of peers appointed by the king at ninety, not including princes of the royal blood and the twelve bishops of the continental dioceses. The nominated peers may be selected without limitation as to class, but certain restrictions and disqualifications are imposed. The elective portion of the Chamber ceases to exist. The members of the second Chamber are chosen in direct election.

Continental Portugal is divided into seventeen electoral districts, which, with Madeira

of Septembrists and Chartists; one Cortes was dissolved after another; finally in 1852 a revised charter was drawn up that proved acceptable to all parties. Shortly afterward the queen died, and her eldest son ascended the throne in 1853 as Pedro V under the regency of his father. The latter used his power discreetly; and by his judicious management the financial confusions and embarrassments were partially removed. Upon the sudden death of Pedro in 1861, his brother was proclaimed king as Louis I. He steadily adhered to constitutional principles, and labored at measures of internal improvement; but ever since the beginning of the century the royal power has been growing weaker and weaker. The financial condition of the country has also gone steadily from bad to worse, in spite of fairly favorable commerce.

The rush of the European powers to appropriate African soil, since the opening of the interior through the Congo, in some degree awoke the old colonial enterprise of the Portuguese, and touched their national pride, making them cling all the more tenaciously to the fragments of colonial territory still left to them in Africa. But the awakening came



LOUIS I OF PORTUGAL

and the Azores, return 140 deputies; there are also six deputies for the colonies. The annual session lasts three months, and fresh elections must take place at the end of every four years. In case of dissolution a new Parliament must be called together immediately. The General Cortes meets at specific periods, without the intervention of the sovereign, and the latter has no veto on a law passed twice by both Houses.

The executive authority rests, under the sovereign, in a responsible Cabinet of seven ministers: Premier and Minister of the Interior; Foreign Affairs; Finance; Justice and Worship; War; Marine and Colonies; Public Works, Industry, and Commerce.

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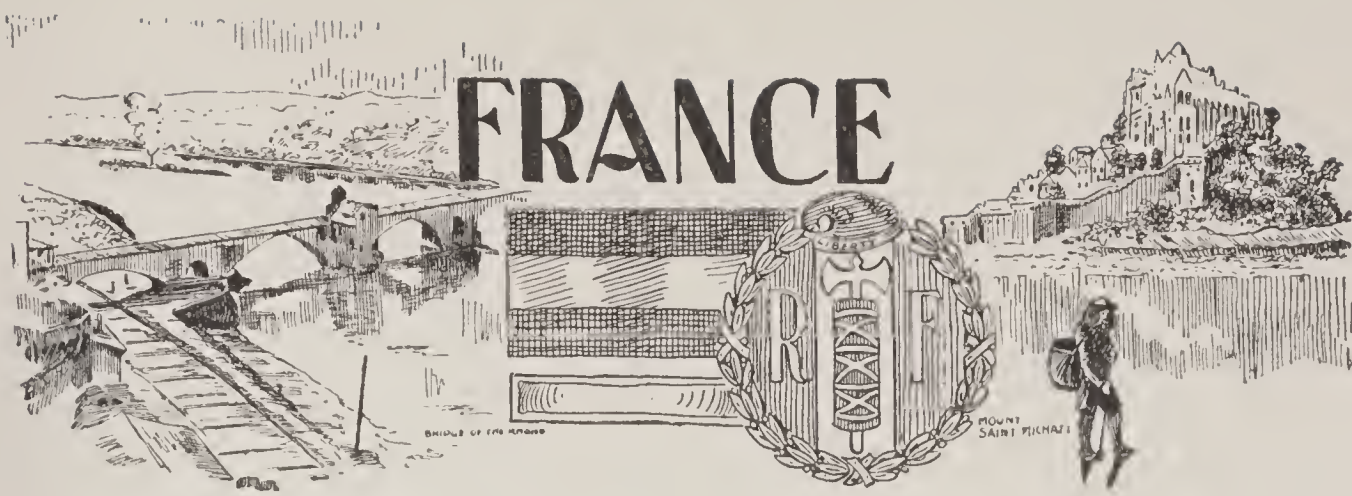
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too late; the march of events and the energy of her rivals wrested from her many square miles that she claimed as her own, but had done next to nothing to colonize and develop.

England in the end of 1889 compelled Portugal to abandon her claims to Nyassaland, and two years later a treaty was signed defining the respective spheres of influence of the two countries in East and West Africa, especially in the basin of the Zambesi. Further delimitations were agreed upon in 1891.

In the meantime, Charles I had succeeded his father, October, 1889. The action of Britain occasioned an outburst of strong popular feeling in Portugal, which the republicans turned to their own advantage; and they were greatly helped by the successful revolution of the republicans in Brazil and the expulsion of the emperor (November, 1889). But in the home country their advantage proved to be of only a temporary nature.





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[*Authorities:* The French Histories of France by Anquetil (1805; new ed. 1879), Sismondi (1834), Thierry (1827; new ed. 1872), Michelet (1833-74), Martin (4th ed. 1856-60), Guizot (1874), Duruy (1852); the *Recueil des Historiens des Gaules et de la France*, edited by Dom. Bouquet and other Benedictines, and continued by members of the institute (i-xxvi, 1738-1885); Crowe's *History of France* (Lond. 1830-44); the short histories by Mrs. Brook and Miss Yonge; and Dean Kitchin's *History of France previous to the Revolution* (3 vols. 1873-77). For the Revolution, see the works of Mignet (1824), Thiers (1823-27), Louis Blanc (1847-64), Michelet (1847-53; centenary ed. 5 vols. 1889); Taine's *Origines de la France Contemporaine* (1875-85; Eng. trans. 1878-85); Carlyle's *French Revolution* (1837); Morse Stephens's *History of the French Revolution* (vol. i, 1886); and Von Sybel and Wachsmuth in German. For the Restoration, see Lamartine (1829) and Capefigue (1869); for the Revolution of 1848, Lamartine (1849), Garnier-Pages (1872); and for the Second Empire, Delord (1875), Richard Ladge, *History of Modern Europe*; Haydn's *Dictionary of Dates*; *Statesmen's Year Book*; *Encyclopedia Britannica*; Ste.-Aulaire's *Histoire de la Fronde* (2d ed. 1860), Bazin's *France sous Louis XIII et Mazarin* (2d ed. 1846), and Fitzpatrick's *Great Condé and the Fronde* (1873).]



FRANCE is a republic in the west of Europe forming one of its most extensive, most populous, and most influential states. It occupies an advantageous position between the Atlantic Ocean and the Mediterranean Sea.

The civilization developed on the coast of the Mediterranean eventually found an easy passage toward the Atlantic and the North Sea by the broad valleys of the Rhone and Saone, which communicate with the drainage areas of the Seine, the Loire, and the Garonne. The territory now occupied by France thus became the ground upon which Roman civilization met and melted with the civilization of the Celts and the Teutons. It gave birth to a race which assimilated a variety of ethnological elements — Gaulish, Italian, Spanish, German, and French, and developed into a powerful nationality, the French.

Evolution  
of the  
French

## DIVISION III

## EUROPE

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## FRANCE

French  
History  
Begins  
with  
Roman  
Conquest

In prehistoric times, among the inhabitants of western Europe, from the Rhine to the Atlantic seaboard, no essential lines of difference can be drawn; the Alps, the Pyrenees, and the British Channel formed landmarks of a superficial character, but the Rhine was then, as it is now, a sharp ethnological boundary. The trading voyages of the Phœnicians and the conquests of the Carthaginians left no impression upon the west of Europe. Though Greek civilization gained a footing at Massilia, now Marseilles, history for France began with the Roman conquest.

Adopt  
Roman  
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guage  
and  
Forms

Julius Cæsar is the first historian of France, which, under the name of Gaul, was invaded by him 59–51 B. C., civilized by force, and incorporated into the Roman empire. Thanks to the common ethnological points of Celt and Roman, the native elements rapidly adopted the imported language, culture, and laws of Rome. Protected against Teutonic invasion by military posts on the Rhine, subjected for the first time to legislation and administration, the Gallic tribes who had risen before their conquests to the height of civilization attainable by them without foreign aid, turned to peaceful pursuits, such as agriculture and commerce, and built for their governors amphitheaters, public baths, aqueducts, and military roads. Lugdunum (Lyons) became a Transalpine Rome.

Teutons  
Appear  
in Gaul

In the second century A. D., Gaul was the most populous, and in the fourth it was one of the most civilized Roman provinces. Its schools were so famous that Roman-born students went there to learn the art of eloquence. Its nobles and cultured classes supplied the empire with more than one general and with more than one poet or prose writer. It became the home of an enlightened Christianity, but did not escape the rebellions of slaves and land laborers which broke out now and then in the empire, and bore witness to aristocratic and ecclesiastic oppression. Thus, by the engrafting of Roman civilization upon the old Celtic stock, there grew between the Alps, the Mediterranean, the Pyrenees, the Atlantic, and the Rhine, a Gallo-Roman state, with a culture free from the Hellenistic stamp peculiar to the Eastern provinces of the empire, and more akin in many respects to modern circumstances than to those of the ancient world. Indeed, Gaul was fast being elaborated into a pure neo-Latin nationality, when, from the year 395 onward, the Teutonic tribes, pent up to the east of the Rhine, and pressed from behind by Slavonic hordes, burst upon the scene

and acted as a dissolvent upon Roman civilization. Beaten in Tuscany in 406, bands of Vandals, Burgundians, Suevi, and Alemanni, falling back upon Gaul, left bare of troops, destroyed the forts on the Rhine and in the interior of the country. After long wanderings the Burgundians settled in the fruitful plains of the Rhone Valley, and founded the kingdom of Burgundy from the Mediterranean border to the Vosges. A few years later the Goths, also retreating from Italy, occupied both sides of the Pyrenees, founding the kingdom of the Visigoths, from the Garonne in the north to the Ebro in the south, with its capital at Toulouse.

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**Bur-  
 gundy  
 Founded**

In 451 a Roman general of barbarian birth, Actius, fighting at the head of an army in which Romans, Burgundians, and Visigoths stood side by side, defeated in the Catalaunian fields (Châlons-sur-Marne) the hordes of Attila. This was Rome's last deed of war in Gaul.

The staff of military supremacy fell from the hands of the Romans into those of the Franks. These were a confederacy of the Germanic tribes between the Rhine and the Harz Mountains, whom the Romans had attacked in vain, and to whose persistent invasions they had to sacrifice Belgium. Once in possession of the banks of the Meuse and of the Sambre, they advanced under their king Clovis (481-511) toward the Seine and the Loire, and made at first Soissons and then Paris their capital. Clovis became a Christian. Carving out for himself a realm abutting to the south upon the Visigoths, and to the east and southeast upon the Burgundians, he laid foundations for the future kingdom of France, from the Rhone and Garonne to Brittany. Clovis, through his zeal in the interests of the Catholic Church, earned the title of "most Christian king," which passed from the Frankish chiefs to the kings of France. The emperor at Constantinople gave him the Roman title of patrician and consul. The Franks remained subject to their own Salic law, but they maintained in Gaul Roman law, Roman state and church organization. Thus a Germanic tribe became the leading military and political agent in the plains of Gaul, and gave to France its name and its first dynasty of kings, the Merwings or Merovingians, but it adopted the Roman tongue of the conquered, and so did the Visigoths and Burgundians in their own dominions.

Franks

**Clovis  
 "Most  
 Christian  
 King"**

In 752 the Karlings, or Carlovingians, in the person of Pepin the

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Temporal  
 Power of  
 Popes

Short, superseded the Merovingian dynasty, and laid the foundation of the temporal power of the popes. Pepin's son, Charlemagne (768–814), raised to its zenith the supremacy of the Franks in western Europe, by uniting under his hegemony the Germanic states hewn out of the Roman provinces. Coming at a time when the Germanic ruling classes were no longer separable from the conquered masses, the formal centralization of power in his hands, ratified by his coronation in 800 as Roman emperor by pope Leo III, could not long stem the forces at work for the splitting up of western Europe into a number of small states; neither could this result be accomplished by the building up of a military monarchy extending from the Ebro in Spain, and from the Apennines in Italy, to the North Sea, and from the Atlantic to the Elbe in Germany, the establishment of a code of imperial law and of a system of imperial government, the encouragement of learning and commerce. The Frankish military hegemony fell to the ground under the reign of his weak successors. The next step toward the formation of France was the treaty of Verdun (843), by which the localization of the Germans became final; their former racial unity sank in an awakening sense of different nationalities.

Hugh  
 Capet  
 Made  
 King

Though Charles the Simple was politic enough to put an end to the incursions of the Normans by making their leader Rollo duke of Normandy, the unchecked development of a hereditary aristocracy had reduced the royal power to a shadow, when, in 987, Hugh Capet, Count of Paris and of Orleans, was made king by the feudal chiefs. He was the real founder of the French monarchy as distinct from the extinguished Frankish kingship, and from the imperial dignity which was vested after Charlemagne in the ruling house of Germany. While the Roman emperors of the German nation often took up their abode at Aix-la-Chapelle, Charlemagne's residence, the Capetian kings, residing in Paris and crowned in Rheims, became an outward sign that the Rhine divided races again, as in the days of Varus and Arminius. Louis le Gros (1108–37) regulated the feudal system, abolished serfdom on his own estates, secured corporate rights to the cities under his jurisdiction, while a new element in the state was generated by the foundation of a free burgher class.

At this juncture the policy of the Plantagenets forced England

into hostility with France. Henry of Anjou, already duke of Normandy, suzerain lord of Brittany, count of Maine and Touraine, had married Eleanor of Aquitaine, who brought him the provinces of Guienne, Poitou, and Gascony; and when in 1124 he became king of England as Henry II, his prestige outshone utterly the French court. The kings of England laid claim to the crown of France; the French kings demanded obedience from their too powerful vassals. Hence an enmity so persistent, and fed subsequently from so many sources, that the crusades, of which the Normans were the most zealous promoters, and later the Crimean war, offer the only instances of military fellowship between England and France.

Philippe Auguste (1180–1223) recovered Normandy, Maine, Touraine, and Poitou from John of England. He took an active personal share in the crusades, and permitted the pope to organize a cruel persecution against the Albigenses in the southern parts of the country. Philippe was the first to levy a tax for the maintenance of a standing army, and in his reign a chamber of peers, of six secular and six ecclesiastical members, was constituted to act as a council of state. Many noble institutions date their origin from this reign, as the University of Paris, and the Louvre. A right of appeal to the royal courts was established, and the arbitrary power of the great vassals crippled. Improvements in the mode of administering the law were continued under his son, and his grandson, Louis IX (1226–70), who, before his departure for the crusades, secured the rights of the Gallican church by a special statute, in order to counteract the constant encroachments of the papal power. Under his son, Philippe III (1270–85), titles of nobility were first conferred by letters patent. He added Valois and the comtes of Toulouse and Venaissin to the crown. Philippe IV (1285–1314), surnamed le Bel, acquired Navarre, Champagne, and Brie by marriage.

With the object of securing support against the secular and ecclesiastical nobility, Philippe gave prominence to the burgher element in the nation, and for the first time called together the *États Généraux*,\* or states-general, at which the *tiers état*, or

\* States-general (French *Etats Généraux*) was the name given to the representative body of the three orders (nobility, clergy, burghers) of the French kingdom. In the time of Charlemagne and for seventy years after his death there were assemblies of clergy and

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England  
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at WarThe  
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States-  
GeneralStates-  
General

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King's  
 Rule  
 Extended

burgher class, appeared together with the nobles and clergy. With the view of securing to the crown the great fiefs, he abrogated the right of females to succeed to landed property. His tyrannical persecution of the Templars showed his abuse of the regal power, while the transference of the holy see to Avignon brought the popes for seventy years under the influence of the French court. Under his three sons and successors, Louis X (1314–16), Philippe V (1316–22), and Charles IV, le Bel, (1322–28), the rule of the kings of France was strengthened and extended.

England  
 Defeats  
 France

Philippe VI (1328–50), the first of the house of Valois, succeeded in right of the Salic law.\* His reign, and those of his successors, John (1350–64) and Charles V, le Sage (1364–80), were disturbed by constant wars with Edward III, of England, who laid claim to the throne in right of his mother, a daughter of Philippe le Bel. The war began in 1339; in 1346 the battle of Crecy was fought; at the battle of Poitiers (1356) John was made captive; and before its final close, after the death of Edward (1377), the state was reduced to bankruptcy, the nobility excited to rebellion, and the mass of the people sunk in barbarism. Debasement of the coinage, onerous taxation, and arbitrary conscriptions brought the country to the verge of irretrievable ruin, while the victories of England humbled the sovereign, annihilated the French armies, and cut down the flower of the nation. The long and weak minority of Richard II diverted the English from the prosecution of their groundless claims to the kingdom of France; but during

nobles held twice a year to deliberate on matters of public importance. There is no trace of any national assembly in France properly so called earlier than 1302, when the states-general or representatives of the three orders were convened by Philip the Handsome in his quarrel with Pope Boniface VIII. The states-general, however, though their consent seems in strictness to have been considered requisite for any measure imposing a general taxation, had no right of redressing abuses except by petition, and no legislative power. Under Charles VI and Charles VII they were rarely convened. Louis XIII convoked them, after a long interval, in 1614, but dismissed them for looking too closely into the finances; and from that time down to the Revolution (1789) they were never once summoned to meet. As soon as they did assemble—the clergy, 291; noblesse, 270; *tiers état*, 557 (nearly half lawyers)—the Third Estate, after inviting the noblesse and clergy to sit with them, on the advice of Sieyès, constituted themselves a National Assembly (June 17). About one hundred and fifty of the clergy joined them (June 22), and nearly fifty of the nobles, with Philip of Orleans, on June 25; the rest followed by the king's command two days later.

\* Vol. III, p. 1223, Salic Law.

the minority of Charles VI (1380-1422), the war was renewed with increased vigor on the part of the English nation, who were stimulated by the daring valor of Henry V. The signal victory won by the English at Agincourt in 1415, the treason and rebellion of the French princes of the blood, who governed the larger provinces,

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the ambition of the several regents, the ultimate imbecility of the king, the profligacy of his queen, and the love of pleasure early evinced by the dauphin; all combined to aid Henry in his attempts upon the throne. But the premature death of Henry, the persevering spirit of the people, and the extraordinary influence exercised over her countrymen by the Maid of Orleans concurred in bringing about a thorough reaction, and, after a period of murder, rapine,



JEANNE D'ARC

and anarchy, Charles VII, le Victorieux (1421-61), was crowned at Rheims. He obtained from the states-general a regular tax (*taille*) for the maintenance of paid soldiers, to keep in check the mercenaries and marauders who pillaged the country. The policy of his successor, Louis XI (1461-83), favored the burgher and trading classes at the expense of the nobles, while he

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humbled the power of the vassal princes. He was a crafty ruler, who managed the finances well, and succeeded in recovering for the crown the territories of Maine, Anjou, and Provence; while he made himself master of portions of the territories of Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy. Charles VIII (1483-98), by his marriage with Anne of Brittany, secured that powerful state, and consolidated the increasing power of the crown. With him ended the direct male succession of the House of Valois.

Louis  
 XII

Louis XII (1498-1515) was the only representative of the Valois-Orleans family. The tendency of his reign was to confirm



ROMAN AQUEDUCT, NIMES

the regal supremacy, while the general condition of the people was ameliorated. He and his successor, Francis I (1515-47), of the Valois-Angouleme branch, wasted their resources in futile attempts to establish their hereditary claims to Lombardy. Francis I's rivalry with the Emperor Charles V of Spain, representative of the House of Hapsburg-Burgundy, gave itself vent in four wars for the possession of Burgundy and Italy. Taken prisoner at the battle of Pavia (1525) and led away to Madrid, Francis ultimately made good his title to Burgundy (1544), but had to renounce Italy. His reign is marked by the flowering of the Renaissance,\* by the beginning of the Protestant Reformation,† by the further strengthening

\* See Vol. III, p. 1081, Renaissance.

† See Vol. III, p. 1084, Reformation.



of the absolute power of the monarchy, by the subordination of the clergy to the crown. An ally of the Protestant princes in Germany, and of the schismatic king of England, Henry VIII, he yet remained in his home policy an adherent of the Roman Catholic religion. He and his immediate successors were concerned mainly with the political aspects of the reformation, which recruited its upholders from the aristocratic and enlightened classes. Henri II (1547-59) recovered Calais for France. Under Francis II (1559-60) the Roman Catholic House of Guise obtained possession of the effective power in the state. Their adversaries, the House of Bourbon, headed the movement of the "Reforme." Under the weak kings Charles IX (1560-74) and Henri III (1574-89), who were under the influence of their mother, Catherine de Medici, this division of the French nobility resulted in the war of the League and wars of religion. The massacre of the Protestants on the night of St. Bartholomew \* raised to such a pitch the pride of the House of Guise, that Henry III fled to the camp of the Bourbon leader, where he was murdered by a fanatical monk. The name of Charles IX remains associated with the horrors of St. Bartholomew's night, which witnessed the striking of a blow at

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\* The Massacre of St. Bartholomew was the slaughter of the French Protestants which began August 24, 1572, by secret orders from Charles IX at the instigation of his mother, Catherine de Medici, and in which, according to Sully, 70,000 Huguenots, including women and children, were murdered throughout the country. During the minority of Charles and the regency of his mother a long war raged in France between the Catholics and the Huguenots, the leaders of the latter being the Prince of Condé and Admiral Coligny. In 1570 overtures were made by the court to the Huguenots, which resulted in a treaty of peace. This treaty blinded the chiefs of the Huguenots, particularly the Admiral Coligny, who was wearied with civil war. The king appeared to have entirely disengaged himself from the influence of the Guises and his mother; he invited Coligny to his court, and honored him as a father. The most artful means were employed to increase this delusion. The sister of the king was married to the Prince de Béarn (1572) in order to allure the most distinguished Huguenots to Paris. On August 22 a shot from a window wounded the admiral. The king hastened to visit him, and swore to punish the author of the villainy; but on the same day he was induced by his mother to believe that the admiral had designs on his life. The following night Catherine held the bloody council, which fixed the execution for the night of St. Bartholomew, August 24, 1572. After the assassination of Coligny a bell from the tower of the royal palace at midnight gave to the assembled companies of burghers the signal for the general massacre of the Huguenots. The Prince of Condé and the King of Navarre saved their lives by going to mass, and pretending to embrace the Catholic religion. By the king's orders the massacre was extended throughout the whole kingdom, and the horrible slaughter continued for thirty days in almost all the provinces.

Massacre  
 of St.  
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the very heart of the nation; the first step in a periodical recourse to murder, persecution, and proscription. Such horrors, renewed by Louis XIV against the Protestants, and applied by the Revolution to a different class, together with the triumphant campaigns



of Napoleon, did more to weaken France than the worst blows of its enemies.

Edict of  
 Nantes

The accession of the Bourbon prince, Henri IV of Navarre (1589–1610), allayed the fury of the religious wars, but his recantation of Protestantism in favor of Catholicism disappointed his own

party, to which, however, he granted the free exercise of their religion and ecclesiastic autonomy by the *Edict of Nantes* \* (1598). By degrees Henri, through the counsels of his minister Sully, and by his own personal popularity, raised the power of the crown higher than ever, while he began a system of thorough administrative reform, which was arrested only by his assassination by the fanatic Ravailiac.

During the reign of his son, Louis XIII (1610-43), Cardinal Richelieu, one of the greatest statesmen of modern Europe, resumed the policy of Francis I against the House of Hapsburg, by entering into a compact with the Protestant princes engaged in the Thirty Years' war, raised higher the authority of the crown at home, and humbled the Huguenots, who in the south and west of France had established almost a state within a state. Cardinal Mazarin, under the regency of the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, governed during the minority of Louis XIV. His continuation of Richelieu's policy roused the parliament of Paris to a last effort in favor of its ancient political liberties, systematically cut down or ignored by the kings; the nobility also made a last stand for their feudal rights.

The civil war of the Fronde † ensued (1648-54). Its termination put all classes under the heel of the young king, Louis XIV

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Richelieu

Civil War

\*The *Edict of Nantes* was signed by Henri IV in that city, April 30, 1598. It allowed the Protestants the free exercise of their religion, and threw open to them all offices of state. This edict was formally revoked by Louis XIV on October 20, 1685. As a consequence of this fatal act for France about 400,000 Protestants emigrated to Great Britain, Holland, and other Protestant countries.

† The name, *Fronde*, was given to the factions in France during the minority of Louis XIV, which were hostile to the court and the minister, Mazarin, and gave rise to the civil war from 1648-1654. The grasping and despotic policy of Mazarin, to whom Anne of Austria, the queen-regent, had abandoned the reins of government, had given offense to all classes. The entire nation was aflame with discontent; the nobles were jealous of the employment of foreigners in the chief offices of state; the people objected to the oppressive taxation; the parliaments resented the wilful disregard of their authority. At length the parliament of Paris refused to register the royal edicts, more especially the financial measures increasing the burdens of taxation. Mazarin in retaliation ordered the arrest (August 26, 1648), of the president and one of the councilors, Peter Broussel. Thereupon the people took up arms. The court fled to Ruel in October, but early in 1649 removed to St. Germain. The populace and parliament were joined by the discontented nobles, Conti, Longueville, Beaufort, Turenne, and De Retz. But the arrival of Condé, the champion of the royal party, who proceeded to lay siege to Paris, soon turned the tide. An agreement was therefore come to between court and parliament at Ruel on April 1, 1649, the people being released from the obnoxious taxes, while Mazarin

Edict of Nantes

Civil War of the Fronde

DIVISION III (1643–1715), who, with local parliaments reduced to judicial and administrative bodies, with aristocrats demeaned into courtiers, could justly say, “L’état, c’est moi.”\* During his reign the French monarchy culminated. But under a cloak of magnificence, sores gathered sufficient to effect its ruin less than seventy-five years after his death. He continued the policy of Richelieu and Mazarin. The successes of the armies under Condé, Turenne, Vauban, Luxembourg, Catinat, Vendome, Bouffiers, and Crequi extended the boundaries of France to the Rhine, and to Flanders on the north; this was mainly due to the talent of Louvois in developing the military and naval resources of France, and to the financial skill of Colbert.

Boundaries  
Extended

But the war of the Spanish Succession (1701–14), though confirming a prince of the House of Bourbon upon the Spanish throne, ended disastrously for the French, who were repeatedly defeated by Prince Eugene of Savoy and Marlborough. At home the greatest splendor and luxury were displayed; art, literature, and science flourished to a degree unknown before. The proud king compelled

and the foreigners were allowed to retain their offices. This ends the movement called the Old Fronde, a contest carried on in the interests of the people. The New Fronde was at bottom a struggle between Condé and Mazarin. The nobles, especially Condé, were far from being satisfied with the compact of Ruel, and opened negotiations with Spain for assistance from the Netherlands. But on January 18, 1650, the queen-regent suddenly arrested Condé, Longueville, and Conti. This arbitrary proceeding roused the provinces. The Duchess of Condé stirred up the south of France. The Duchess of Longueville (Condé’s sister) won over Turenne, who threatened Paris, but was defeated at Rethel. Nevertheless the storm was so great that Mazarin was obliged to release the princes, and flee from the country. Now, however, a kaleidoscopic movement changed the relations of the principal actors in the affair. Condé withdrew to Guienne; De Retz was bribed by the gift of a cardinal’s hat; Turenne went over to the court; and Mazarin was recalled and reinstated in power. Meanwhile, Louis XIV, who, having now attained his fourteenth year, was declared to be of age, endeavored to induce Condé to return; but the latter, mistrusting these overtures, commenced a regular war against the court, until he was defeated by Turenne near Paris on July 2, 1652. Condé found refuge within the capital; but the citizens, grown weary of the whole business, opened negotiations with the king, only demanding the removal of Mazarin to return to their allegiance. This demand was complied with and a general amnesty proclaimed (1653). Condé, who refused to enter into the compact, repaired to Champagne; but, finding no one disposed to take up arms in his cause, he entered the Spanish service. Shortly afterward Mazarin was once more recalled to Paris, and again entrusted with the reins of government. The parliament of Paris was completely humbled, so much so that its political existence was virtually suspended for a century and a half. Thus the royal power came forth victorious from the contest.

\* I am the state.

the pope to restore to the Gallican Church some of its privileges, but he fell under the influence of Jesuit advisers, and dealt his country a baneful blow by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685), causing 400,000 Protestants to emigrate. At the close of his rule the absolutism and bigotry, the oppressive war taxes, the prodigality of the court, and the luxurious lives of the clergy bore their fruit.

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The party which had surrounded the late king, the party of Madame de Maintenon, the Jesuits, the Duke of Maine, represented the past; their opponents were ambitious to represent the future. At their head stood Philip, duke of Orleans, who had in extremest form all the characteristics of the Orleans branch of the Bourbon family. He was brilliant and most intelligent, highly educated and cultivated; he was brave and capable as a soldier, full of good ideas as to the benevolent management of the people, and lastly, profligate and utterly without rule in his moral life, so that his better side was always neutralized by his worse qualities, and he ended by failing completely to govern France on principles opposed to those of Louis XIV. Like so many of the prominent personages of the eighteenth century, his intellect grasped the future, while his vices clung to the past. Even before the old monarch had been buried, Philip of Orleans swept away all the arrangements of the royal will, and had himself appointed regent, with full power to appoint his council of regence. The public opinion warmly supported this *coup*



LOUIS II DE BOURBON DE CONDE

Intellect  
 versus  
 Vice

Philip  
 of  
 Orleans  
 as  
 Regent

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Plan of  
 Provin-  
 cial Gov-  
 ernment

*d'état*. At once the regent set himself to reform the government, and alter the foreign policy of France. In home affairs the regent's action aimed at a complete reversal of the late king's methods. He proposed to shift the work of governing from the king to the nobles, but this system of government failed, partly through the indolence of the regent, partly through the inaptness of the nobles for practical business. He hoped to introduce throughout France the system known as that of the *pays d'états*, a system of local

estates or parliaments, which should lead up to a real and substantive states-general, and make all the provinces alike in form of government. This also he could not carry into effect. In short, the long reign of Louis XV presents nothing worthy of notice except the gradual rise of this modern philosophy which prepared the overthrow of all the ancient institutions of the country. The regency of Orleans paved the way for the miseries which followed, while his corrupt financial administration brought the nation into the most overwhelming financial embarrassment.



FACADE OF FRENCH CATHEDRAL

Financial  
 Embar-  
 rassment

France  
 Loses  
 Colonies  
 to  
 England

In this reign Corsica was added to France. A thorough disorganization of the state, and neglect of the fleet and army prevented all attempts at conquest either by sea or on land. The colonies were left free to the attacks of other powers, and the capricious changes of policy which the king's mistress, Madame le Pompadour, forced upon the government, brought contempt upon the country. The Peace of Paris, 1763, by which the greater portion of the colonial possessions of France were given up to England, terminated an inglorious war, in which France had expended 1,350,000,000 francs. The close of this unhappy reign was still further disturbed by the cabals of the Jesuits, and their banishment in 1764 marked

the triumph of the philosophical movement over the Roman Catholic Church. It was during this reign that the Law Financial Scheme\* was perpetrated upon the country. The war of the Spanish Succession had exhausted the resources of France, and

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Law  
Financial  
Scheme

\* The regent finally became induced to listen to the advice of a congenial spirit, John Law, the son of an Edinburgh goldsmith, who had pursued his financial speculations at the gaming-tables of Europe. He was a fanatical believer in the power of credit, which was just beginning to play a new and unprecedented part in commercial transactions. His scheme was to form a bank which should have at its back all the resources of the state, as security for the issue of paper money. As further security, he intended to get the whole commerce of the country under the control of the central bank. Thus an almost unlimited amount of paper could be put in circulation, which would perform all the functions of specie, indefinitely multiply the national wealth, give a new impulse to manufactures and trade, and enable the government to pay off the debt without effort or sacrifice. The scheme had a political as well as financial significance. If successfully carried out, it would give the monarchy a power far greater and more centralized than Louis XIV had ever dreamed of obtaining. At the same time the issue of paper money would enable the government to repurchase the offices which had been sold to individuals, and thus recover absolute control over the magistracy. It was this aspect of the scheme which led Montesquieu to call Law the greatest supporter of despotism that ever lived, and it was this which raised against him the opposition of the parliament and other institutions whose independence was threatened. The gigantic proportions of the scheme fascinated the mind of the regent. But it was based upon a fundamental error, which is easily to be discerned by the light of modern political economy. In those days money was regarded not so much as an instrument for effecting the exchange of wealth, but as wealth itself. If this was erroneous in the case of specie, it was still more erroneous in that of paper money. This, Law failed to perceive. To him every increase of the circulating medium — and such an increase could certainly be effected by his plan — implied a direct increase of wealth. The nation was destined to suffer for the erroneous opinions which he shared with almost all his contemporaries.

Law's proposals had at first been rejected by the influence of Noailles, but he was allowed in 1716 to found an independent bank, which proved a great success. In the next year it was raised to be a government institution, and Law was now enabled to develop his scheme without hindrance. He formed the great Mississippi Company, to which the regent granted the recently discovered territory of Louisiana, and the capital was named New Orleans in his honor. The company soon displayed extraordinary activity. It assumed the management of the tobacco monopoly and advanced 1,200 millions to the government at three per cent., to redeem debts which had been contracted at a much higher rate of interest. The shares were greedily sought after, and rapidly rose to four times their original value. A perfect mania for stock jobbing set in, and the headquarters of the company was thronged with eager and excited speculators. Meanwhile all sorts of paper money, bank-notes, and company's bonds, were circulated in profusion, and readily taken up, although many of the cooler speculators, including Law himself, were not slow to realize their paper in the purchase of landed estates. In spite of this success the scheme met with vehement opposition in the parliament of Paris and elsewhere, which the regent put down with a firm hand. Noailles, who refused to have anything to do with, Law was dismissed. The parliament was deprived of its right of remonstrance, the administrative councils were suppressed, to the great disappointment of the nobles, and the personal guardianship of the young king was taken from the Duke

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the annual expenses were greater by nearly 60,000,000 francs than the revenues. The Duke of Orleans was more successful, if not more disinterested, in the management of foreign affairs than in that of finance. At the time of his ascension there were two powers with which France was brought into the closest relations, and with which it was necessary to be either on terms of alliance or hostility, England and Spain. England had been the most determined and formidable opponent of Louis XIV. In the war of the Spanish Succession she had ruined the prestige of the French arms.

of Maine and given to the Duke of Bourbon. Finally, Law became a Roman Catholic, and this removed the obstacle to his appointment as financial minister.

In 1720 came the inevitable crash. There had undoubtedly been an increase of wealth in France, because speculation had given some impulse to commerce. But it was nothing in comparison with the enormous increase in the circulating currency. The result was soon visible. Whenever the medium for circulating commodities increases out of proportion to the commodities which it has to circulate, the result is that each commodity commands a larger part of the medium, that is, its price increases. This was the first effect of Law's employment of credit. Prices rose all around without benefit to either consumer or producer. This, if not advantageous, was not in itself harmful. But matters became worse when paper money began to drive specie out of circulation. Those who possessed gold and silver either hoarded it or sent it out of the country. It was in vain that edicts were issued imposing a penalty at hoarding, and endeavoring to maintain the paper at a fictitious value. They served only to shake the confidence of the public, upon which the whole stability of the scheme rested. Everybody who held paper hastened to realize, and there were not sufficient funds to meet the demand. Shares fell at once, and a panic set in, which involved both bank and company in a common ruin. The regent published an absurd edict which reduced the value of the company's paper by half, and fixed the shares at their original price of 500 livres. He had to withdraw the edict within three days, but the popular indignation was so great that it is marvelous how the government managed to survive the crisis. It was stated that the regent and his associates were partially responsible for the extent of the disaster. Careless of the means employed to acquire wealth, they had issued paper money from the bank of their own accord, beyond even the very extreme limits prescribed by Law. The bank had to cease payment, and thus the national bankruptcy was brought about without intention. Law had to escape for his life, and he carried with him but a scanty remnant of the enormous fortune which he had amassed. He died in poverty at Venice in 1729, still preserving an unshaken belief in the principles of his system.

The disaster seemed for the moment to have ruined France, but it proved ultimately to be less serious than could have been anticipated. The losses had fallen rather on individuals than on the nation as a whole. Credit was shaken but the national wealth was undiminished. The winding up of affairs was entrusted to the brothers Paris, the ablest financiers of the old school. The bank was abolished, but the Mississippi Company still continued to exist as a trading corporation. Ruinous as the excitement had been, it had yet given a real and lasting impulse to commercial and colonial activity. And, what was of more immediate moment to the government, the state emerged from the crisis with a substantially diminished debt.



In 1774, Louis XVI, a well-meaning, but weak prince, succeeded to the throne. His first ministers, Maurepas, Turgot, and Malesherbes, had not the vigor to carry out reforms. In France the external fabric of feudalism had been more completely destroyed than in any other country of Europe. The old system, under which the nobles governed their own estates with more or less responsibility to the crown, had given way to a new centralized administration which had been gradually perfected from the reign

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 Louis XVI  
 Becomes King  
 1774



A NORMANDY HOUSE

of Louis XI to that of Louis XIV. Under the king the supreme control of domestic affairs was in the hands of the controller-general of finances, which was assisted by a central council, and by the provincial attendants. The states-general had been powerless since the fourteenth century, and had never been summoned since 1614, so that their composition and procedure were known only to antiquarians. In five of the outlying provinces, the so-called *pays d'état*, there still lingered some trace of the local estates, but they had no real vitality or importance except in Languedoc, and to some extent in Brittany. In the other provinces, the *pays d'élection*, the intendants were absolute rulers. All sorts of

Condition of the Government

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officials existed, many of whom had paid large sums for their posts, but their functions had become nominal. The parliaments, or courts of justice, had retained their independence longer than any other institutions, and at one time had threatened to impose formidable checks on the royal power. But this was due, not to any sympathy with popular liberty, but to the fact that the lawyers had formed themselves into a hereditary and privileged class, and

when the old parliaments were suppressed by Maupeou, the action was applauded by Voltaire and his followers. The last vestige of the mediæval system had thus been swept away from the path of royal despotism. The nobles were still the most conspicuous persons in their districts, but they had ceased to govern. The peasants, who had once been their serfs, had risen to be metayer tenants or, in many parts, small proprietors. The only career left open to a noble was in the civil or military service of the government. In Paris or with the army he might still acquire fame, on his

Nobles  
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A MAID OF BRITTANY

own estates he was powerless. His rank prevented him from becoming one of the intendants, and they exercised the power that once belonged to his ancestors.

The duties of the nobles were usurped by the monarchy, but the rights were left behind to console the nobles for their impotence. Thus they were exempted from payment of the *taille* and other oppressive taxes, and in its origin the exemption had ample justification. The *taille* was imposed to provide for the maintenance of

a military force; but the nobles were bound to serve at their own expense, and therefore were excused. Since then the obligation of military service had lapsed, but the right of exemption had been jealously retained. So they had lost the absolute mastery over their serfs, but had kept the rights which had been the symbol and outcome of that mastery. Many of them had powers of jurisdiction, all had supreme rights of hunting and forestry. They could exact enforced labor from the peasants, and could compel them to pay tolls and other dues, and to grind their corn at the lord's mill. These exactions would have been cheerfully acquiesced in as long as the lords were real rulers, and gave protection and judicial administration in return for them. But in the eighteenth century the vast majority of the nobles were absentees, who left the collection of their dues in the hands of extortionate bailiffs, and squandered the proceeds in the capital. It was the absence of duties that made the continuance of the rights and privileges absurd, and it was this, even more than their oppressive character, that roused the bitter wrath of the peasants. It was not against the feudal system, but against the effete survival of parts of the system, that the Revolution directed its destructive energy.

The clergy were also unpopular, not so much on account of the spread of irreligion in France, but because they had come to occupy the same anomalous position as the secular lords. The great churchmen were owners of immense wealth, which was wrung from the tillers of the soil, and for which no adequate services were rendered. The lesser clergy, who worked in poverty and were excluded from all hope of promotion, shared in the misery and sympathized with the aspirations of the people.

Among the third estate there was a similar division of interests. In the cities municipal independence had perished since the days of Richelieu, and the intendant was as active and powerful within the walls as outside. So heavy was the burden of taxes imposed upon them that all motives for economy or for the improvement of agriculture were destroyed. The taille had been gradually increased by the mere will of the government, and its collection was purely arbitrary. And besides having to bear most of the expenses of the regular forces, the peasants were also compelled to undergo an irksome term of military service. Their case was unquestionably the hardest, but the revolt was commenced by the higher classes.

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Peas-  
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## DIVISION III

## EUROPE

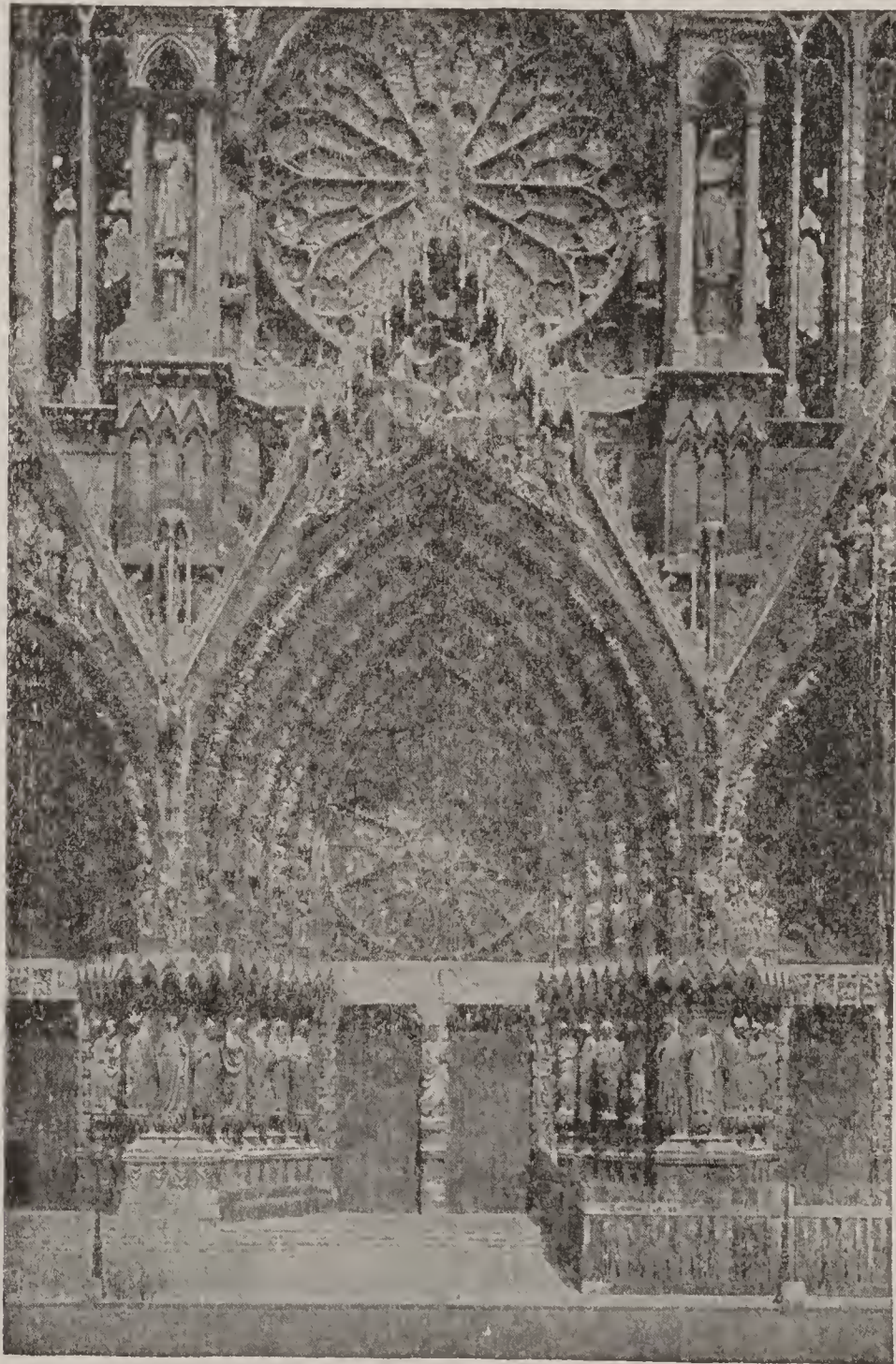
ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERN

## FRANCE

Character  
of Louis  
XIV

The want of union between the classes in France had long been the safeguard of the monarchy; it ruined the Revolution. After one moment of combination against the crown, men turned against each other to vent a spite that had been ripening for generations.

Louis XVI was born in 1754, and was therefore twenty years old



PORTAL, CATHEDRAL OF RHEIMS

at the time of his accession. Both in his merits and his defects he presents a marked contrast to the other members of the House of Bourbon. He had been brought up in retirement, and his manners were always coarse and unprepossessing. He had no pronounced tastes except for the manual labor of an artisan and for hunting. But he was free from the gross vices that had disgraced his predecessors, and he was conscientiously eager to secure the welfare of his subjects. Unfortunately

he had none of the requisite qualities for the discharge of this necessary task. Unable to form an opinion for himself, he lacked the strength of mind to carry out with resolution a course of action which he adopted on the advice of others. Throughout his life he was dependent upon the influence of those around him, of his aunts, his brothers, and finally his wife, Marie Antoi-

nette, whom he married in 1770, but who only gradually obtained that supremacy over his intellect and affections which was ultimately to prove fatal to both of them.

The first ministers, Maurepas, Turgot, and Malesherbes, were succeeded by the financier Necker, a banker from Geneva, who had made a large fortune in business. Necker was not a statesman, but he was for his time a considerable financier. He was extremely desirous to make the revenue cover the expenditure, and he was as willing as Turgot to diminish the latter by rigid economy. He looked to the taxes for supplies in ordinary times, while for exceptional demands he sought to raise loans at a moderate interest. In this his own reputation as a banker served him in good stead, and he obtained money much more easily and cheaply than his predecessors had been able to do. In one way his administration had important results for France. Like Rousseau, he was a native of Geneva, and he imported into monarchical France the ideas and traditions of a free republic. These traditions and the exigencies of credit led him to introduce publicity into the national accounts, and thus to put an end to that secrecy which had been the snare and the security of a decrepid government. He was also willing to obtain the popular consent to taxation, by giving new life and powers to the provincial assemblies. Thus he did much to prepare the way for the Revolution. For a time Necker was exceedingly popular. While the court regarded him as their only savior, the salon of his wife gave him a recognized position among the friends of progress and enlightenment. But his economy soon disgusted his powerful patrons, while the retrograde character of many of his measures forfeited the confidence of the party of progress. In a time of peace his system might have secured to France a period of comparative tranquillity; but, unfortunately for his reputation, he was compelled to raise exceptional supplies for an expensive war.

The American colonies were now in open revolt against England. Their discontent had been first aroused by the attempt of England to impose upon the colonists some share of the expenses incurred in the Seven Years' war. Since then concessions had been made and withdrawn, with the result of increased bitterness on both sides, until the war finally broke out in 1775. On the 4th of July, 1776, the colonies issued the famous *Declaration of Independence*,

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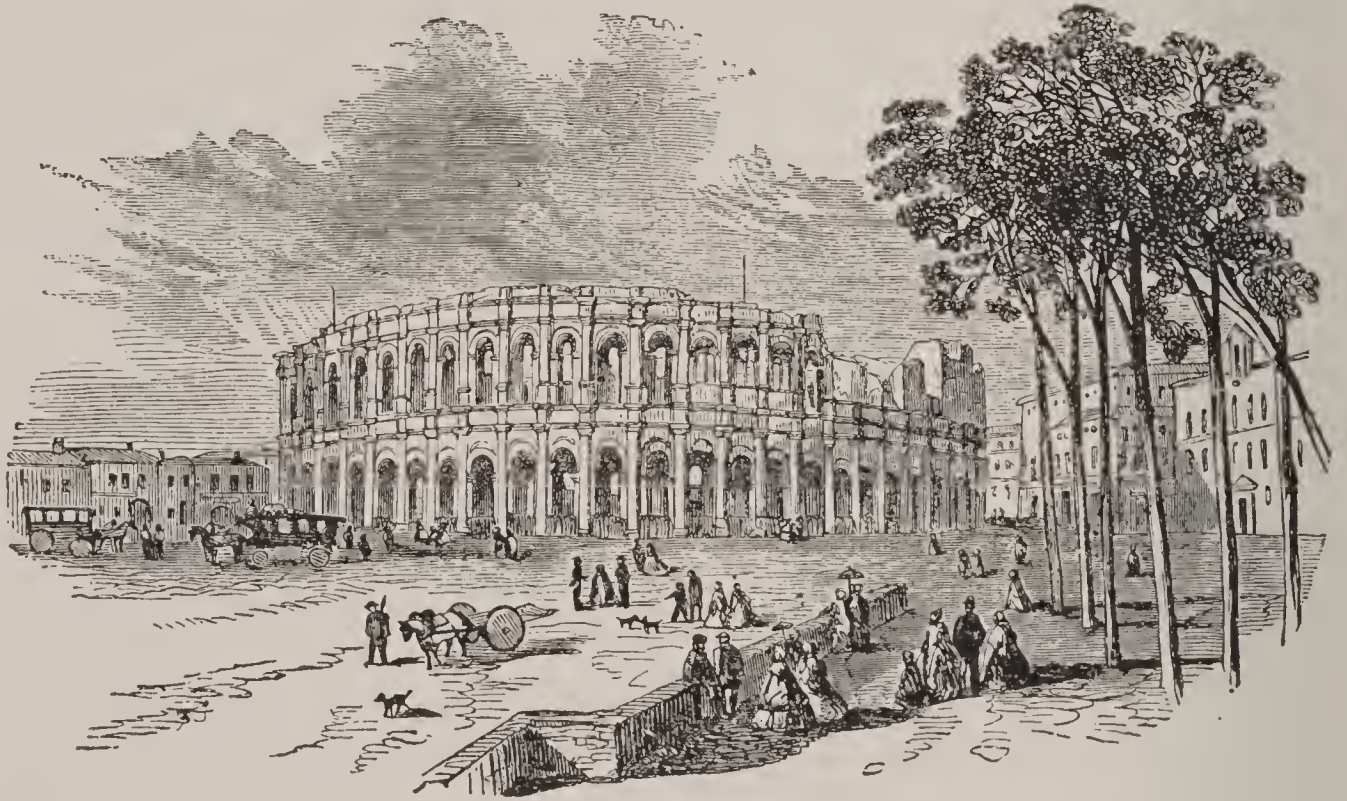
Necker

Public  
AccountsFrance  
and the  
Ameri-  
can  
Colonies

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Treaties  
 between  
 France  
 and the  
 United  
 States

which enunciated the rights of man. From the first the greatest enthusiasm had been felt in France for the cause of the colonists. Lafayette and other volunteers crossed the Atlantic to serve in the American armies. Franklin became the idol of Paris when he visited France in 1777, and the news of Burgoyne's capitulation at Saratoga roused the excitement of the war party to fever heat. The success of the colonists seemed assured, and the friends of progress were as ready to worship success in the eighteenth as in the fifteenth century. On the 6th of February, 1778, two treaties were signed between France and the United States. The first



AMPHITHEATER AT NIMES

stipulated only for friendship and commercial relations; by the second it was agreed that if England took aggressive measures against France, the two powers should combine for defensive and offensive purposes. France promised to make no attempt to recover those possessions in North America which had been recently lost, and neither party was to lay down arms until England had acknowledged the independence of the colonies. The news of this treaty made a profound impression in England. Lord North's courage gave way, and he proposed to open negotiations with America. But Lord Chatham (William Pitt) came down to protest in his dying speech against such a humiliation before an ancient enemy. His last act was to insist upon a war which he alone could have successfully directed. The English

England  
 Declares  
 War  
 against  
 France

ambassador was recalled from Versailles, and naval hostilities were immediately commenced.

From a purely military point of view, the action of France was well judged. England had been unable to put down the rebels when they were isolated, she was still less likely to succeed now that they were supported by the whole power of France. But a regard to internal politics amply justified the gloomy anticipations of the French ministry. Peace was absolutely necessary to restore financial prosperity to France. War involved increased expenditure and ultimate exhaustion. And there were still more convincing arguments which ought to have weighed with the supporters of the monarchy. Rebellion is contagious, and it was preposterous to expect that principles which were approved on the other side of the Atlantic could be excluded from European soil. The open intervention of France in the cause of republican liberty gave an enormous impulse to these forces which were gathering to effect the overthrow of the established system of government. But for a time all these considerations were forgotten in the passionate desire for revenge, and in the intoxication of unwonted successes. Not only did the French admirals, like d'Estaing and d'Orvilliers, show themselves a fair match for Howe and Keppel, but all Europe seemed eager to join France against a haughty and dictatorial power. It was to Spain that Vergennes naturally made his first application for assistance. Charles III, as we have seen, was a firm believer in the rights of monarchs, and had no sympathy with the cause of rebels. But the traditional jealousy of England, the Family Compact, and above all the desire of recovering Gibraltar and Minorca, combined to overcome his scruples, and in 1779 a treaty was concluded between France and Spain against England. Spanish forces at once laid vigorous siege to Gibraltar, and England naturally reverted to her old and successful plan of involving France in a continental war. For this a convenient opportunity seemed to be offered by the outbreak of the quarrel about the Bavarian succession. But the caution of Vergennes averted this danger. Louis XVI refused to assist his brother-in-law, and French mediation forced upon Joseph II the peace of Teschen. This was followed by a general expression of resentment against the arrogant claim of England to naval supremacy.

Of this supremacy the most offensive symbol was the "right

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Liberty  
Gains  
Impulse

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Right of  
SearchNew  
Law of  
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tralityEngland  
Loses  
Last  
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of search," by which vessels sailing under a neutral flag were boarded to discover whether they were carrying supplies to the hostile belligerents, and if such goods were found, they were confiscated. In 1780 Catharine II of Russia issued a declaration, which involved an important and permanent change in international law, to the effect that neutral vessels may trade freely with belligerents in all articles that are not contraband, and that a blockade need not be respected unless it is effectual; *i. e.*, that a mere formal announcement that a harbor is blockaded is insufficient unless enough ships are provided to prevent the ingress of other vessels. This declaration was accepted by Frederick the Great, who gladly seized the opportunity of displaying enmity toward England and to the ministry of Lord North, and by most of the states of northern Europe. Thus was formed the "armed neutrality," which was a serious check upon English operations, although it did not lead to active hostilities.

It was of great importance to England under those circumstances to retain the alliance of its old naval rival, Holland. The House of Orange had been closely attached to England ever since the recovery of the statdholdership of William IV in 1748, and his marriage to a daughter of George II. The present head of the family, William V, whose minority had ended in 1766, was inclined to continue the same policy. But the Republican party, which had its headquarters in Amsterdam, was now very strong, and was eagerly desirous of an alliance with France and the United States as the best method of throwing off English dictation.

In 1780 an American vessel was captured by the English, on which papers were found which proved that as early as 1778 the Pensionary of Amsterdam had drawn up a projected treaty with the American colonies. It was also known that Holland had sent supplies to the rebels, and that the Dutch island of St. Eustatius had been a great center for traffic with America. So great was the indignation roused in London by these disclosures that the envoy was withdrawn from The Hague, in December, 1780, war was declared against Holland, and thus England was left without an ally in Europe. To make matters worse, a great war had broken out in India in this year through the quarrel with Hyder Ali, and a French fleet under the Bailly de Suffren gave the English forces ample occupation. At the same time the ministry was hampered



by the Gordon riots, which arose from their concessions to the Roman Catholics, and by the dangerous condition of affairs in Ireland, where the volunteers had assumed the functions of government, and events were rapidly hurrying on to the legislative separation of the two islands in 1782.

It is obvious that these circumstances gave France very considerable advantages in the war, and thus enabled her to avenge in some measure the previous humiliations. But there was another side to the picture, in the enormous expenditure which these various and distant operations entailed upon the government. Necker succeeded for some time in raising supplies by loans with-

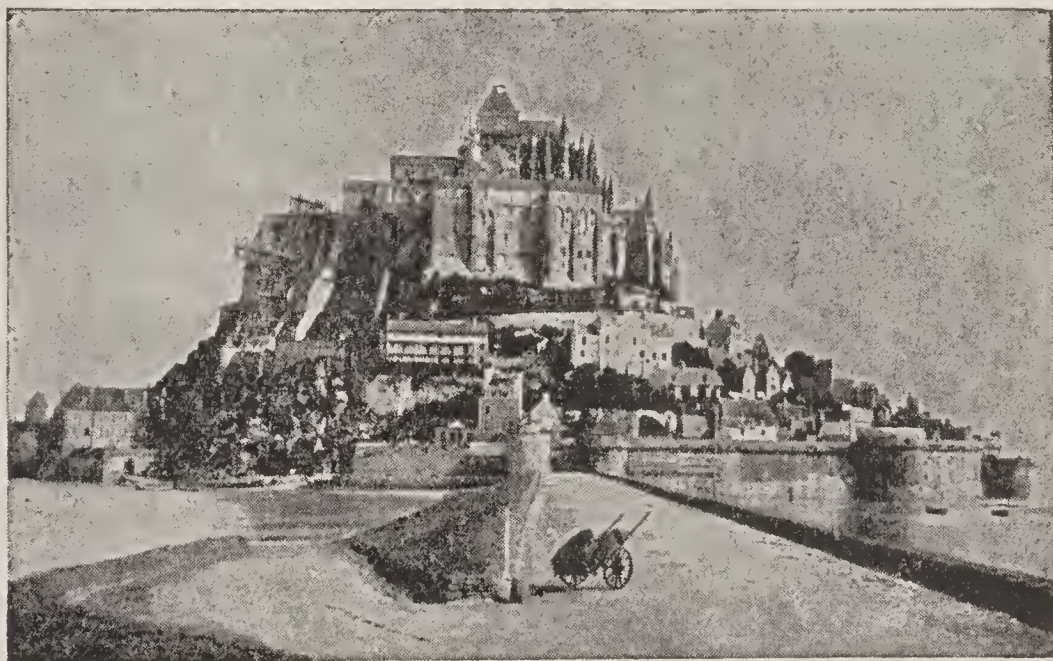
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**France's  
Advantage  
Checked  
by  
Internal  
Disaster**



MONT ST. MICHEL

out increasing the taxes. To do this he had to persevere in his plan of cutting down the expenses of administration. An edict of 1779 enumerated the evils to commerce, caused by the heavy tolls upon roads and navigable rivers, and ordered the proprietors of these rights to report them to the council, with a view to their purchase. Another edict in 1780 made the first step in the direction of a great reform, the abolition of the system of farming the taxes so as to bring them directly into the exchequer. A month later it was announced that the taille and other direct taxes should not be increased in future, except by laws registered in the superior courts. In July of the same year a provincial assembly was created for the province of Berry, which was to consist of twelve nobles, twelve ecclesiastics, and twenty-four members of the third estate. It was to meet for at least a month every two years, votes

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were to be taken, not by estates but by heads, and it was to appoint an administrative committee to supervise affairs during the intervals between its sessions. Necker's idea was to apply this system gradually to all the provinces of France, and to transfer the functions of the intendants and subdelegates to these representative assemblies.

Public  
 Accounts  
 Pub-  
 lished by  
 Necker

This apparent conversion of Necker to the ideas of the reformers roused great indignation among the official classes, who became as hostile to him as they had previously been to Turgot. At present he had the complete approval of the king; and could afford to disregard the efforts of the opposition. But toward the end of 1780, he began to find increased difficulty in obtaining loans. To restore credit he obtained from Louis XVI permission to publish the accounts, and in January, 1781, he issued his famous *compte rendu*. By this he made out that the receipts exceeded the expenditures by eighteen millions. It was really a partial and inadequate statement, but it succeeded in restoring the confidence of the moneyed classes, and for a time money was easily obtainable. But the effects of the measure were far greater than this. The secrets of the administration were all at once laid bare to hostile criticism, and the opponents of the government had now acknowledged facts to point to in support of their denunciations. The outcry among the privileged classes was very loud against a minister who had struck such a blow to the interests of the monarchy. An open quarrel broke out in the ministry, and Necker boldly brought matters to a crisis by demanding a seat in the council. Maurepas replied that he should be admitted when he abjured the Protestant religion, and Necker, in spite of the urgent solicitations of the queen, resigned his office in May, 1781.

Necker  
 Resigns  
 for Re-  
 ligious  
 Reasons

With the fall of Necker terminates the period of administrative reform in France. The reactionary party had succeeded in foiling the plans of those men who stood between themselves and ruin. The finances were entrusted to Joly de Fleury, an incapable courtier, who increased the debt without providing any means for paying the interest. The reactionary character of the government is sufficiently illustrated by an edict of 1781, which excluded from offices in the army all who could not prove four generations of nobility on their father's side. Thus the army was made more exclusively aristocratic than it had ever been before, just at a time

when the middle classes were beginning to be conscious of their power and their rights.

The first important event of this period was the conclusion of the English war, but long before the conclusion of peace the glories of the war had been forgotten in comparison with the ever-increasing difficulties of the internal administration. Joly de Fleury had no method of raising money except by loans, and these he could not obtain so cheaply as Necker had done. To pay interest he had to impose new taxes. The parliament of Paris, in its joy at the overthrow of the late minister, accepted the edict, but the provincial parliaments were less submissive, and one of them, the parliament of Franche Comte, raised the first cry for the summons of the states-general. Fleury had to resign after adding three millions to the debt, and d'Ormesson, a young man, equally dishonest and incapable, was appointed in his place. D'Ormesson was led, by his innocent desire to get out of the difficulties, to postpone the payment of the public obligations, a measure which amounted to a practical acknowledgment of bankruptcy. After holding office for seven months, he was dismissed, and the intrigues of the court ladies led to the nomination of Calonne as his successor. This minister proved to be one of the most reckless and worthless ministers that were ever called to direct the destinies of a great nation. His sole object was to disguise the real situation from the court, from the people, and even from himself. As much as he believed in anything he believed in the doctrine so hateful to political economists, that unproductive expenditure is a benefit to labor. This belief he carried to extremes as fatal as the ideas of Law, and equally delusive for a short time. While the deficit was constantly increasing, he spent money lavishly in public festivities, in useless works, and in gratifying the avarice of the princes and nobles. Even business men were dazzled by so astounding an exhibition of confidence, and for a time loans were readily obtainable. But so hollow a bubble must soon burst, and in 1786 Calonne found himself at the end of all his resources. By this time public opinion had become more and more hostile to the court. The growing influence had excited ill-feeling, which was aggravated by scandalous rumors about the queen's private conduct. The birth of a daughter in 1778, and of a son in 1781, after a long period of childlessness, had aroused bitter hostility in

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**War with  
England  
Closed****Demand  
for  
States-  
General****Reckless  
Policy of  
Calonne**

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 AND  
 MODERN  
 FRANCE

the House of Orleans, which had hitherto looked forward with confidence to the ultimate succession to the throne. All sorts of reports were spread with malignant industry, and Marie Antoinette's actions, though not inconsistent with perfect innocence, were sufficiently injudicious to give some color to the assertions of her enemies. In 1785 the trial and acquittal of Cardinal de Rohan on the charge of stealing and purchasing a diamond necklace of the queen, and of having forged her signature in authority of the transaction, gave a fresh impulse to the current suspicions. It was while opinion was in this excited state that the truth about the financial condition was suddenly disclosed.

Financial  
 Stress  
 Increases

A New  
 Plan

Since the fall of Turgot the revenue had been increased by 140 millions, partly by the addition of new taxes, partly by the natural development of resources. In spite of this, during the three years of Calonne's administration, years of perfect peace, the deficit had been increased by thirty-five millions. In August, 1786, Calonne confessed to the king exactly how matters stood, and at the same time proposed a plan for meeting difficulties, in which he borrowed most of the principles of Turgot and Necker, to which his previous administration had been diametrically opposed. The whole kingdom was to be divided among provincial assemblies of three grades, one for the parish, one for the district, and one for the province; and in their hands the assessment of all taxes was to be placed. A regular land tax was to be imposed, from which no class, and not even the royal domain, was to be exempted. Trade in corn was to be free, except that the provincial assemblies might suspend exportation. Compulsory labor (corvees) was to be replaced by a poll tax, levied only on that class which had hitherto furnished the labor. The tolls upon traffic between the various provinces were to be abolished and the gabelle upon salt diminished. These changes, according to Calonne's calculation, would add 115 millions to the revenue within a single year. To carry such a sweeping measure, which involved a complete departure from the traditions of the old régime and attacked the foundation of all privileges, exceptional authority was needed, and the king was easily induced to summon an assembly of Notables for the beginning of 1787. Before they met, the position was altered for the worse by the death of Vergennes (February 13), who had considerable influence with the upper classes.

Assem-  
 bly of  
 Notables  
 Called

It was a grand but chimerical idea to expect the privileged classes to sacrifice their private interests to save the state. The

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STREET IN QUIMPER, BRITTANY

assembly, which met on the 22d of February, contained 144 members, of whom only six or seven belonged to the third estate. It

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The Plan  
 a Failure

was soon evident that nothing but strenuous opposition was to be expected from them. Even the people and the partizans of reform ridiculed measures which they would have welcomed from Turgot, when they were offered by Calonne. In the assembly the opposition was headed by Lomenie de Brienne, archbishop of Toulouse, a selfish aspirant for office, and by Necker, who was disgusted by the exposure of the fallacious character of his own financial statement. This formidable coalition convinced the king that he must get rid of the unpopular minister, and Calonne was dismissed. But Louis refused to have anything to do with Necker, whose abrupt resignation he had never pardoned, and gave the vacant post to Brienne. Brienne had no policy of his own; he had posed as the champion of privileges to gain office, he adopted the plans of Calonne to keep it. The only difference was that he brought in the measures singly, instead of trying to carry them out at once. The Notables, satisfied with having overthrown the minister, approved his policy and were dissolved. But there still remained the parliament of Paris, which had now become the last resource of the opponents of reform. The edicts about the corvees, the trade in corn, and the provincial assemblies, were registered without opposition, but when the equal land tax upon all classes was proposed, the parliament refused to accept it. The edict was registered in a bed of justice, and for protesting against this high-handed measure the parliament was exiled to Troyes. But Brienne soon found that he could not govern by himself, and the court was allowed to return to Paris on condition of accepting the edicts. Thus, by a curious mixture of violence and weakness, the crown gained the first victory over the privileged classes.

But the quarrel broke out afresh on the next scheme for imposing a tax, and the parliament determined to purchase the support of the people by denying its own rights in matters of taxation, and by demanding the states-general. Another bed of justice, and the exile of the Duke of Orleans and other leaders of the opposition, roused the parliament to fury. It was quite in vain that Brienne sought to conciliate them by promising concessions to the Protestants, and the summons of the states-general within five years. The arrest of two of the most violent members of the court only extorted fresh protests against the arbitrary conduct of the government, and gave increased popularity to the parliament. As

Brienne  
 and the  
 Parlia-  
 ment of  
 Paris

a last resource Brienne determined to restrict the parliament to its judicious functions, and to entrust its political duties to a wholly new court, or Cour Plénière. But such general indignation was aroused that it proved impossible to carry out the measure. Risings took place at Dauphine, Brittany, and other provinces. Even an assembly of the clergy, which Brienne summoned in the hope of obtaining money, began its proceedings by demanding the abolition of the Cour Plénière, and the meeting of the states-general. At last the government gave way, and on the 8th of August, 1788, the states-general was summoned to meet in May, 1789. A fortnight later Brienne, whose administration had been one long failure, resigned, and the king, much against his will, was obliged to summon Necker once more to office.

The recall of Necker and the definite summons of the states-general excited universal enthusiasm throughout France. But the two measures were not steps in exactly the same direction. Necker was by no means in complete sympathy with the reforming party, with which he had allied himself to put pressure on the court. Narrow minded and unsympathetic, he thought only of administrative reform, the security of credit, and his own tenure of office, and had no conception of the needs and desires of a people among whom he was always a foreigner. Neither was he in accord with the court, where the chief influence was exercised by the queen, the Count of Artois, and the Polignac faction, who were opposed to all constitutional change beyond what was necessary to evade immediate danger. The differences between Necker and the court divided the ministry, which was therefore without any decided policy. The king, who ought to have taken a line of his own, was incapable of independent action, and vacillated helplessly between one party and another. It was this condition of the government which was the great advantage of the reformers, and which gave rise to many of the disasters which were to fall upon France.

The states-general having been summoned, it was necessary to determine their constitution, a matter of some difficulty, as they had never met since 1614. There were two great questions to settle: (1) Were the three orders to have an equal number of representatives, or was the third estate to be the more numerous, as several precedents indicated? and (2) Were the three orders to deliberate separately or together; *i. e.*, were votes to be taken by

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Recall of  
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Necker a  
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 and not  
 in Accord  
 with  
 Court or  
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Questions  
 as to the  
 States-  
 General

## DIVISION III

EUROPE

ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERN

FRANCE

Necker  
Solves  
Problem

CATHEDRAL OF NOTRE DAME DES DOMES, AVIGNON

head or by order? These questions ought to have been decided by the executive government, but there was too little unanimity for

this. Ultimately the matter seems to have been arranged by Necker, and his decision offers an excellent illustration of the position in which he stood. To be popular was essential for him, therefore he granted the third estate a number of representatives equal to the other two orders together. To restore the finances, the pecuniary privileges of the upper classes must be abolished, and to effect this it seemed desirable that the assembly should be undivided. On the other hand, that measure would make the third estate absolute, and would involve danger to the constitution. Unable to decide between these conflicting considerations, the minister left the question of voting undetermined. All citizens over twenty-five years of age who paid the capitation tax were authorized to choose representatives; the electors, as they were called, chose the deputies

for their respective estates, and drew up the cahiers, or lists of grievances and instructions to the deputies.

On the 5th of May the assembly was opened by colorless



speeches on the part of the king, Necker, and other ministers. The total number of deputies amounted to 1,139, of whom 291 represented the clergy, 270 the nobles, and 578 the third estate. From the first the third estate assumed a resolute attitude on the question of procedure, demanded that votes should be taken by head, and refused to verify the powers of its deputies, until the assembly had been constituted by the adhesion of the other orders. Among the nobles there were a number of moderate reformers, of whom the most prominent were Lafayette, Lally-Tollendal, and Clermont-Tonnerre, who urged this course of action upon their colleagues. But the majority, influenced by the queen and the Count of Artois, refused to give up their separate existence, and maintained that deliberation by order and the right of each estate to a veto were essential parts of the constitution. The clergy were more evenly divided. Most of the great ecclesiastics were inclined to support the nobles, and to oppose a union of the three orders, which would leave them powerless to defend their interests or their religion. But the majority of the order was composed of ill-paid curés, who had little sympathy with their haughty and high-born superiors, and were inclined to throw in their lot with the third estate. Late on the 19th of June the clergy, by 138 votes to 129, decided to join the third estate. The majority was mainly composed of the lower clergy, but it contained several bishops, and was headed by the archbishop of Bordeaux.

The government was astonished at the rapidity with which events had marched. Necker was as irritated as the most pronounced supporter of despotism and privilege. The establishment of a single legislative assembly, in which the commons were practically supreme, was fatal to his favorite scheme of a double chamber like the English parliament. He advised the king to hold a royal sitting, much the same as a *lit de justice*, to conciliate the people by granting the most essential reforms, and to order the separate deliberation of the three estates on all matters concerning the interests of classes. This was a measure which might have succeeded earlier, but was now much too late, and moreover was not exactly carried out. The court party succeeded in gaining the king's ear, and convinced him that his interests, not only of the crown, but of religion, were at stake. It was determined to effect a real *coup d'état*, and to strike terror into the hearts of

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Leaders  
in the  
Assem-  
blyClergy  
Joins  
Third  
EstateNecker  
Proposes  
to Grant  
Reforms  
but is  
Too Late

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Attempt  
to Pre-  
vent Ses-  
sions of  
States-  
General

the opposition. But in the meanwhile it was important to prevent any further sessions, for fear lest the union of the clergy with the third estate might make their subsequent separation more difficult.

On the pretext that the hall had to be prepared for the royal sitting it was occupied by workmen, and when Bailly, the president, arrived in the morning he was informed that no session could be held. The assembly was roused to indignation by so palpable a trick, and, after some violent proposals had been rejected, they adjourned to the adjacent tennis-court. There, on the motion of Mounier, a deputy of Dauphine, and one of the most moderate of the reformers, all, with one exception, took a solemn oath "not to desert the assembly, and to meet wherever circumstances shall require until the constitution is firmly established on a solid foundation."

The  
Tennis  
Court

The next day the Count of Artois engaged the tennis-court, but the deputies found more respectable and comfortable quarters in the church of St. Louis. Here they were immensely encouraged by the arrival of the majority of the clergy, who were welcomed with transports of joy (June 21).

Louis  
XVI in  
the As-  
sembly

The court blindly adhered to the program that had been agreed upon. On the 23d of June, Louis XVI entered the assembly with all the impressive pomp of the old régime. Necker showed his disapprobation of the changes made in his scheme, and revived his waning popularity, by absenting himself. The king, who had learned his lesson only too well from his advisers, proceeded to rate the assembly in terms which were equally opposed to prudence and to his own acquiescent temper. He declared that the national representatives could only be composed of the three estates deliberating apart; only on special occasions, and with royal permission could a joint meeting be held. He prohibited the discussion of all burning questions, and ordered immediate consideration of certain specific reforms which he would accept without hesitation. The decrees of the 17th were declared to be unconstitutional and therefore annulled. Finally he ordered the immediate dissolution of the assembly and the meeting in different chambers on the next day. He said: "I can say with truth that no king has ever done so much for any nation: support me in this benevolent undertaking, or else I will alone secure the welfare of my people, and will regard myself as their only real representative."

The clergy and nobles obeyed the order to separate at once, but the third estate remained in somber silence until Mirabeau rose and inveighed in burning words against the insulting dictation they

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CATHEDRAL OF RHEIMS

had listened to. On the arrival of the Grand Master of the Ceremonies to remind the deputies of their instructions, the orator turned upon him fiercely, and bade him tell his master that they were there by the will of the people, and would not depart unless compelled by bayonets. It was unanimously decided to maintain

**Mirabeau  
Answers  
the King**

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The King  
DefeatedFirst  
Step in  
the Revolu-  
tionLouis  
under  
Influence  
of Queen  
and  
ArtoisNational  
Troops

the edicts of the 17th, and to declare the inviolability of the national representatives.

The *coup d'état* had already failed, when those against whom it was directed had shown that they were not intimidated. Louis himself was the first to recognize a defeat which he had courted under the influence of others. The assembly by its firmness had ousted the king from the highest position in France, and the first great step in the revolution was taken. On the next day the majority of the clergy again joined the third estate, and their example was followed by forty-three nobles, among whom was a prince of royal blood, Philip of Orleans. On the 27th the king sent a special request to the other nobles and clergy that they would also join the national assembly. With unfeigned reluctance they obeyed the royal order, and henceforth sat among the men whose measures they hated and dreaded. They were encouraged by representations from the court, that their complaisance would not be permanent, and that means would be found to defeat the hostile projects of the revolutionists.

The first alarm being over, the court party began to repent of the weakness they had shown in allowing the assembly to gain so easy a victory. The king was carefully separated from Necker and other moderate advisers, so as to give free play to the influence of the queen and the Count of Artois. The new scheme was to employ force to repress a movement which had become too dangerous to be despised or tolerated. From all parts of the kingdom troops were collected, and before long Paris was surrounded by 40,000 men. The supreme command was entrusted to Marshal Broglie, a veteran of the Seven Year's war, who took his measures as if he had to conduct a regular campaign against a foreign enemy. Such public preparations naturally aroused the alarm of the assembly. On the motion of Mirabeau a deputation was sent to the king to express apprehension, and to demand the withdrawal of the troops. Louis replied that he had supreme control of the army, that his only object was to insure tranquillity, and that if the deputies were alarmed, they might withdraw to Noyon or Soissons. Such an answer was equivalent to a confirmation of the worst fears.

But already the initiative in resistance had been taken by a far more dangerous enemy than the assembly, the people of Paris.

For a long time the capital had been in a very disturbed state, chiefly owing to the scarcity of food and the consequent riots for bread. But since the meeting of the states-general the disorders had become more organized and more political. It is difficult to decide how far this change was due to chance or to premeditation. There can be no doubt that a large number of contemporaries believed that the chief instigator of disturbances was the Duke of Orleans, and that the leading rioters received pay from him. Orleans was the bitter and unscrupulous enemy of the queen, and had sufficient ground to complain of the treatment he had received from Louis. His personal character was base enough to make no charge against him incredible. The malice of his numerous enemies has included Mirabeau among these members of the Orleans faction, but the calumny has been sufficiently refuted. But there is no doubt that he was fully aware of the designs of the revolutionists, and that he was equally willing to make use of them or to defeat them as circumstances dictated.

The headquarters of the disorderly element in Paris was in the cafés which had grown up around the garden of Orleans's residence, the Palais Royal. There was formed a sort of club, which had no definite existence, but which used to meet to discuss affairs, and which sent out emissaries to promote the course of action which it desired. The excitement in Paris steadily increased, and there was no adequate authority to put down the tumults. In this crisis the government of the city was assumed by the electors who had chosen the deputies for the states-general, and they fulfilled their self-imposed task with an energy and devotion that reflected the highest credit upon them. It was mainly due to their exertions that supplies were obtained, and that the city was saved from the horrors of famine.

Meanwhile the court party adhered to their plan. On the 11th of July, Necker and three of his colleagues were summarily dismissed and banished, and their places filled by devoted royalists, Breteuil, Broglie, Foulon, and Laporte. This was a tremendous blow to the assembly, which was now confronted by a united and avowedly hostile ministry. A deputation was sent to demand Necker's recall, and to renew the petition for the dismissal of the troops. An unsatisfactory answer from the king provoked edicts in favor of the fallen ministers, and the assembly decided to sit

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**The  
People  
Aroused****Duke of  
Orleans****Necker  
Dis-  
missed****A Hostile  
Ministry**

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Mob  
 Defeats  
 German  
 Regi-  
 ment

Bastille  
 Taken

King's  
 Plan to  
 Dissolve  
 Asem-  
 bly Fails

night and day to prevent a forcible closing of the hall. To relieve the president from the fatigue involved by this measure, Lafayette was elected vice-president. But again it was evident that the real battle was to be fought in Paris and not at Versailles.

The news of the dismissal of the ministers reached the Palais Royal on the 12th; at once Camille Desmoulins, the most eloquent of the popular orators, denounced the king's action as the tocsin for a St. Bartholomew of the patriots, and called upon the people to rise in defense of their lives and liberties. The mob rose in obedience to this suggestion, and in the Tuileries gardens came into collision with a German regiment. Blood was shed in the skirmish, but the French guards joined the citizens, and forced the Germans to retreat. All that was now wanted was arms, and they were obtained by an attack on the Invalides. The attention of the mob was now directed to the famous fortress of the Bastille, the most conspicuous monument of the old despotism, which commanded the Faubourg St. Germain, whence the worst class of the rioters were furnished. After a siege of several hours the garrison compelled the commander, De Launay, to surrender on condition that the lives of the garrison should be spared. The leaders of the attack did what they could to observe their promise, but the mob was too infuriated to listen either to reason or to authority. De Launay, with several of his subordinates, was murdered, and the rest of the garrison, who were carried to the Hotel de Ville, were with difficulty saved by the electors. The mob was supreme in Paris, the troops which had been so assiduously collected were utterly untrustworthy, and the commander, Besenval, could do nothing but withdraw from the city.

The very night which witnessed these events in Paris had been destined by the court for their great *coup d'état*. The king was to renew his declaration of the 23d of June, of which several thousand copies had been printed for circulation. The military force was to compel its acceptance by the assembly, which was then to be dissolved. The assembly was perfectly aware of these designs, and was sitting in momentary expectation of a crisis, when the news came of the disturbances of Paris. One deputation after another was sent to the king to demand the removal of the troops as the one method of securing tranquillity, but he refused to yield. At last it was announced that the Bastille had fallen. In the morn-

ing the question of a deputation was again discussed, when the news came that the king was on his way to the assembly. He was received in profound silence until in a few spontaneous words he expressed his trust in the deputies, and announced that he had ordered the troops to quit both Paris and Versailles. Enthusiastic

applause welcomed these words, the assembly rose in a body, and escorted the king back to the palace, amid the cheers of the crowd. Louis followed up his tardy policy of concession by declaring his willingness to recall Necker, and by asking the assembly to act as mediator for him, both with the minister and with the citizens. Necker returned from exile, and his journey through Paris re-



COLUMN, PLACE DE LA BASTILLE, PARIS

sembled a triumphal procession. Never, either before or afterward, did he enjoy such unlimited popularity; but he owed it rather to his sufferings than to his achievements, and another year of office lost him both the regard of the people and his reputation as a statesman.

The 14th of July was the second of the great days of the Revolution. The 23d of June had given supreme legislative authority to the assembly; the fall of the Bastille established the sovereignty of the people. Such conspicuous and speedy successes seemed to justify the expectation that tranquillity would now be

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King  
Again in  
the As-  
sembly

Necker  
Recalled

Disturb-  
ances  
Continued

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restored, but this was not the case. The disturbances in Paris continued. It must be remembered that the Orleanist faction was still disappointed. They had hoped for the deposition, if not the death, of the king, but Louis had been formally reconciled with the people. Their only chance lay in urging on the movement of Revolution, in discrediting the new authorities and overthrowing the supremacy of the middle class, who were opposed by nature and interest to further employment of violence. Bailly and Lafayette, the representatives of this class, did all they could to restore order and confidence. The latter organized the National Guard; and gave them as their colors the famous tricolor, composed of the blue and red, the colors of Paris, and the white of the monarchy.

Disorder  
 Spreads  
 to Prov-  
 inces

Meanwhile, disorders had spread from the capital to the provinces. Everywhere the old authorities were replaced by new ones, and the sudden change of system destroyed all the repressive powers of government. In the north the lower classes suddenly refused to pay the accustomed services and dues, and thus deprived their superiors of the means of subsistence. In the southern provinces the peasants set themselves to take a terrible vengeance for the oppressions they had endured for centuries. Auvigne, Dauphine, and Franche-Comte were the scene of frightful atrocities; castles were burned, nobles and their families were tortured and killed, and all the horrors of the old Jacquerie\* were renewed with complete impunity.

Rights of  
 Man

The intelligence of these events reached the National Assembly on the 4th of August, and roused the members from an academical discussion of the rights of man, which had been started by Lafayette. The assembly was the only body which could restore order, but it was rightly felt that this must be preceded by a removal of grievances. Two nobles, Noailles and d'Aiguillon, began the work of destruction by proposing the abolition of all feudal rights and of all exemptions and privileges enjoyed by individuals and corporations. The proposals were received with acclamation, and the

Jacquerie

\* Jacquerie was the name given to an insurrection of peasants in France in 1358, when the French king, John, was a prisoner in England. The nobles called the peasants contemptuously, "Jacques Bonhomme;" hence the word Jacquerie. The rising was caused by long-continued oppression on the part of the nobles. It broke out in the neighborhood of Paris, but extended to the banks of the Marne and the Oise. The magnitude of the danger forced the nobles to make common cause, and on June 9 the peasants were defeated with great slaughter near Méaux. This put an end to the insurrection.



assembly promptly decreed that it "annulled the feudal régime, abolished all privileges with regard to subsidies, and declared every citizen admissible to all offices and dignities, ecclesiastical, civil, and military." A perfect frenzy of self-abnegation seized the deputies, every one hastened to resign or abolish something, whether he possessed it or not. The sitting was prolonged till midnight, while one decree after another was carried with reckless haste, and finally Louis XVI was formally declared the "restorer of French liberty."

The famous 4th of August, which was afterward called the "St. Bartholomew of Property," destroyed the last relics of the feudal system in France, and marks the final termination of the ancient régime. The following is a brief summary of the decrees that were adopted by the assembly: Serfdom, corvees, and all the customary services that the lords had been accustomed to exact from their peasants were abolished; the exclusive rights of hunting and the savage punishments for poaching were done away with; the guilds and other close corporations in the towns were dissolved; offices were no longer to be sold, and the administration of justice was to be gratuitous; the lords lost all their old rights of jurisdiction; tithes were to be redeemed into a money tax; the payment of annates to Rome and the plurality of benefices were forbidden. It is perfectly true that these changes were too sweeping and too important to be made all at once and with so little consideration; it is true that the work of destruction ought not to have been accomplished until a new system was ready to replace the old; it is true that the deputies acted under the influence of an excitement that overpowered all considerations of statesmanship or even of justice. Nevertheless the work was essentially necessary, and there was something grand and impressive in the spirit of self-sacrifice that had been shown. The decrees of the 4th of August inflicted great temporary disasters upon France, but they have given great blessings to humanity. They vindicated for all time the freedom of labor and the equality of all men before the law.

The old system having perished, the monarchy having abdicated its power to the assembly and the nation, the privileges which divided classes having been abolished, it was now imperatively necessary to commence the great work of establishing a new constitution which should give permanence to the great changes that

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Equal  
Rights"St. Bar-  
tholomew  
of Prop-  
erty"Feudal-  
ism Des-  
troyedDecrees  
Produce  
Tempo-  
rary  
DisastersNew  
Constitu-  
tion

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Parties  
Forming  
in the  
Assem-  
bly

Mirabeau

had been made. From the time the assembly began to grapple with real definite work, in which questions of principle were involved, parties began necessarily to form themselves in its midst. On the right sat the clergy and nobles who wanted to undo what had been done; in the center sat the moderate party, the allies of Necker, headed by honest and capable men; the left was occupied by the great mass of the deputies who had no particular union, and who were not of the same opinion on all subjects, though in general they favored the Revolution. On the extreme left sat a small and as yet unnoticed group of fanatics who already dreamed of a republic. Among them was Robespierre, Petion, and Buzot; but no one could foretell their future prominence. More prudent and still more prominent were two men who played a great part in the constituent assembly, Sieyes, its legislator, and Mirabeau, its orator. Mirabeau was undoubtedly the great man of the day. Born of a noble family, he had been driven to vice and despair by the persecutions of his father, and he had conceived a bitter loathing for the political and social system that had made such treatment possible. Hence he had thrown himself heart and soul into the revolutionary movement, had employed his pen and his voice to maintain the courage of the assembly, and to excite the wrath of the people. So incessant was his activity, and so wide-spread were his connections that his enemies attributed every outbreak to his intrigues. His great advantage was that he had no organized following—that he was his own party. His haughty and independent temper would brook no associates on terms of equality. He despised the assembly of which he was the guiding spirit; he despised mediocrities like Lafayette and Necker, whose popularity made them a power; and while he knew of the intrigues of the Duke of Orleans he always regarded that prince with unmixed contempt. It is impossible to assert that Mirabeau could have succeeded in carrying out the grand schemes which he so confidently propounded, or that he could have checked the revolutionary movement, but it is equally certain that no one else would.

Discuss  
the new  
Constitu-  
tion

The first work of the assembly after the 4th of August was to resume the discussion about the rights of man, which ended in the declaration on the 27th. It was a feeble and unnecessary imitation of the great American manifesto. Philosophical definitions were laid down by the vote of a majority, and principles were enunciated

which, if logically carried out, would put an end to all government. Then the assembly took into consideration the proposals of a committee which had been authorized to prepare a scheme of the constitution. The first great dispute arose on the question whether the legislature should consist of one or two chambers. Then came the still more burning question as to the relations of the crown and the legislature. It was proposed that the king should have a veto on all laws adopted by the assembly. The left raised

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PALAIS DES TUILERIES, AFTER THE COMMUNE, PARIS

a loud outcry against a proposal which left the interests and wishes of twenty-five millions at the mercy of one man. Mirabeau, who had previously announced his opinion on this point, vigorously opposed any further encroachment upon the royal power. But opinion was becoming agitated outside the assembly. The Palais Royal taught the cry "*a bas le veto*" to a mob which thought it meant a kind of tax. Necker, always afraid of losing the popularity which had restored him to office, induced the king to accept a compromise. The veto was to be suspensive and not absolute; *i. e.*, the king could postpone an act of the assembly for four years; but if two successive legislatures adhered to it, his opposition had to

Royal  
Veto

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Disorders  
 Continue

be withdrawn. The supporters of the crown found themselves deserted by their own leader, and the suspensive veto was decreed on the 21st of September.

Meanwhile the disorders went on in the provinces as well as in Paris. In the latter the number of representatives had been increased from 120 to 300, but without introducing any unanimity into the administration. The real power was in the hands of the National Guard and of its idolized commander, Lafayette.

The 5th of October marks a new and disastrous change in the course of the Revolution. The presence of the king and the government in Paris confirmed the supremacy which that city had assumed in France, and gave irresistible powers to the mob. So well appreciated were the inevitable results that when the assembly determined to follow the king, and took up its quarters in the riding-school near the Tuileries, more than a hundred members, including Mounier and Lally-Tollendal, refused to retain their seats. It was no wonder that men sought to discover the originator of the popular rising. The court attributed it to the evil influence of Mirabeau, but his innocence was subsequently proved to the satisfaction even of Marie Antoinette, and the charge is based merely upon the fact that he had early information of the rising. The real authors of the mischief were the Duke of Orleans and his associates, and subsequently a letter was found in his handwriting to the effect that "the money has not been earned, as the simpleton still lives." The court was probably aware of his atrocious designs, and forced him to retire for a time to England.

Duke of  
 Orleans  
 at  
 Bottom  
 of  
 Trouble

Old  
 Prov-  
 inces  
 Abol-  
 ished

One of the earliest and most important tasks which the assembly undertook was to destroy the old system of provincial administration, as they had already destroyed that of the central government. On the 23d of December, 1789, the old provinces were completely abolished, with all their separate privileges and institutions, with all that marked the fact that they had once been independent states. France was divided into eighty-three departments, whose boundaries were merely geographical, and whose names had to be invented on the spot. The departments, which were as nearly as possible equal in extent, were subdivided into districts, and these again into rural cantons, containing five or six parishes, and into communes. All these divisions were to have a regular organization based upon the same model. The commons, which was the

most important of the newly organized divisions, was to be governed by a council and an executive municipality, their number were to be proportioned to that of the population, and they were to be chosen, not by intermediary electors, but directly by the people. Naturally the greatest discontent was aroused in the provinces, which were proud of their separate existence; and in some, as in Dauphine, an attempt was made to oppose the will of the assembly. But the passion for unity was strong in France, and the efforts of the champions of provincial independence were soon swallowed up in the more dangerous movements of the privileged classes. The reforms in the judicial administration were almost equally sweeping and extensive; that they were more prudent is probably due to the presence of numerous able and experienced lawyers in the assembly.

While these great measures were being discussed, the assembly was always being confronted with the great problem of France, the finances. Their condition had been steadily going from bad to worse, because the disorders of the Revolution had cut off many of the sources of revenue, while the expenditure had been enormously increased. Necker pursued his usual policy of disguising the real condition of things, and sought only to postpone bankruptcy by temporary palliatives. He had demanded and obtained two loans, one of thirty and another of eighty millions, but through deficient information the assembly fixed the rate of interest too low, and neither was successful. Then he demanded a patriotic contribution of a fourth of every income, the assessment to be made on the declaration of each individual. This had been carried by the impetuous oratory of Mirabeau, who insisted that as the assembly depended for its financial information on the minister, he must be implicitly trusted, and must accept the sole responsibility for the measures which he recommended. Still the needs of the government were as pressing as ever, and Necker's resources seemed to be exhausted. He had hoped for a moment that the tithes might be employed for state uses, but the deputies had preferred to make a present of them to the land owners. It was in these circumstances that Talleyrand pointed to what seemed at first sight a source of boundless wealth, the estates of the church. He maintained that the clergy were not the owners, but only the administrators and trustees of their domains, and he therefore pro-

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System  
of Local  
Govern-  
mentReforms  
in Judi-  
ciaryFinances  
the Em-  
barrass-  
ing  
QuestionEstates  
of the  
Church  
for State  
Uses

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Church  
Property  
Finds no  
MarketPaper  
Money  
Based on  
Church  
PropertyClergy  
Opposes  
the Revo-  
lution

posed that the nation should appropriate them, and at the same time undertake to provide for the clergy and for the expenses of public worship. A tremendous outcry was raised by the class whom it was proposed to despoil, but in vain, and it was decreed that the property of the church stood at the disposal of the nation. It was hoped that this measure would give renewed security to public credit, but as this hope was disappointed, it became necessary to proceed to action. A decree of the 19th of December, 1789, ordered the sale of church property to the value of four hundred million francs. But the general feeling of insecurity was so great that no purchasers could be found, and for some time the edict was fruitless. It was not for three months that a way was found out of the difficulty. The municipalities, Paris at their head, undertook to purchase the estates in the hope of gradually selling them to individuals and making a profit out of the transaction. As they could not afford to pay in ready money, they were allowed to issue bonds on which interest was given, and these were employed by the state to satisfy the creditors. Before long this use of paper money was adopted by the government itself on a larger scale. Assignats in proportion to a given amount of church property were issued by the state, and their circulation was made compulsory. On application, the holder of one of these assignats could realize in land, and thus the property was gradually sold, while becoming immediately available for the needs of the exchequer. Thus at last the financial problem was solved, though only for a time and not without disastrous results in the future.

The clergy, who had at first been more in sympathy with the revolution than the nobles, became now equally antagonistic, and did all in their power to obstruct the progress of affairs. The reforming party now discovered that the church was an essential part of the old régime, and as a privileged and exceptional body, was inconsistent with the revolutionary organization. The civil constitution roused the clergy to open war against the Revolution, which at this time celebrated with great pomp the anniversary of the 14th of July. The assembly was exasperated into following up one false step by another. In November it was ordered that all the clergy should take an oath to observe the civil constitution under penalty of dismissal. This provoked an immediate schism which gave speedy occasion for a civil war. An enormous number

of priests refused the oath, and were replaced by others. But the refractory priests were in most cases the most virtuous, and naturally retained their hold on their congregations in many places. This schism proved one of the most serious obstacles to the Revolution. Before this the assembly had completed its attack upon the nobles by abolishing all titles and liveries. Henceforth the privileged classes formed a close alliance for the recovery of their rights. "The opposition of the magistrates had caused agitation without results; that of the clergy kindled a civil war; that of the nobles, in which the other classes combined, was destined to produce the foreign invasion of France."

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 Civil  
 War

The rapid march of the Revolution must not be attributed only to the energy of the extreme party. The adherents of the old régime pursued a miserable policy, which showed that their passions had overcome their reason. Instead of accepting what was inevitable and conciliating the people by a moderation which would have won them many adherents, they sought only to discredit their adversaries by irritating them into taking violent measures. By studiously insulting speeches, by disorderly conduct, which several times brought the assembly to the verge of open fighting, they discredited themselves and the monarchy; and when the most important questions came on for decision, they usually walked out without voting. Equally blamable was the invincible weakness and vacillation of the king, who remained perfectly passive, and could never bring himself to refuse his sanction to the most harmful decrees. But the most culpable of all were the ministers, Necker at their head, who simply obliterated themselves and left the whole responsibility of the government to the assembly and the local councils.

Privileged  
 Classes  
 Pursue  
 Bad  
 Policy

The King  
 Weak

There was one man whose friendship was as valuable as his enmity was dangerous, Mirabeau, who after the abolition of titles became plain M. Riquetti. An opponent of the old régime, but a supporter of the monarchy, he took the first step in offering his assistance to the court. His most intimate friend, the Count de Lamarck, was a Belgian noble, who was attached both by origin and sympathy to Marie Antoinette, and he acted as mediator in the matter. Mirabeau, falsely accused of being an author of the rising of the 5th of October, was really profoundly opposed to the king's residence in Paris. Directly afterward he drew up a memo-

Mirabeau  
 Urges  
 Louis to  
 Leave  
 Paris

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rial, in which he urged Louis to escape to some other town in France, and dwelt earnestly on the inevitable results of remaining in the hands of a Paris mob. The document was conveyed by Lamarck to the court of Provence, but no notice was taken of it. It was at this time that Mirabeau conceived the design of forcing himself into the ministry, and to facilitate this he proposed that the ministers should be invited to take seats in the assembly. But his attitude and ambition inspired distrust among his former associates, and a law was carried November 6, 1789, that no member of the assembly should hold office during its session. This was a direct blow to all his hopes, and also to the prospects of stable government in France. It was evident that the prejudices against him at court were very strong, and for some time he gave way to despair. Lamarck left Paris until he was suddenly recalled by the Austrian ambassador, de Mercy. It had at last been decided to make use of Mirabeau, but the king insisted that the matter should be kept an absolute court secret from the ministers. The agreement was made in May, 1790. The king paid Mirabeau six thousand francs a month, and discharged all his debts, amounting to 208,000. Mirabeau, on his side, undertook to defend the monarchy, to keep the king informed about the course of affairs, and to advise him as to the policy which he considered advisable. The arrangement was hardly followed by the results that were expected by either party. Mirabeau's advice was taken, but rarely followed, and he found that he was no more powerful than he had been before. He still urged the king to leave Paris, even at the risk of exciting civil war, but he warned him against encouraging a foreign invasion, which would only unite the whole nation against him.

Mirabeau  
 Secretly  
 Becomes  
 Adviser  
 of the  
 King

Lafayette

A great obstacle in his way was Lafayette, now the most powerful man in France, whom he regarded with mingled distrust and contempt, but whom he was compelled to try and gain over, without success. Necker and most of the ministers, whom he still denounced with bitter malignity in the assembly, were hostile, and it was not for some time that he established a connection with the minister of foreign affairs, M. de Montmorin. The departure of Mercy to the Netherlands was a great blow to him, and he thus lost the only man who could have induced the king and queen to adopt his views. In September, 1790, Necker suddenly threw up his office and quitted France, where his departure excited no regret



and hardly any attention. Soon afterward his colleagues, with the exception of Montmorin, were dismissed. But Mirabeau reaped none of the expected advantages from the change. The new ministers were nearly all nominees of Lafayette, and all co-operation with them was impracticable.

Mirabeau became more and more sanguine as his grand scheme seemed to approach realization. His eloquence was triumphantly displayed in denouncing the proposal of a tyrannical law to prevent emigration. But his health had long been undermined by his incessant labors, and by the excesses of his private life. On the 27th of March, 1791, he was seized by a serious illness, and on the 2d of April he died in the arms of Lamarck. With him perished the greatest man of the revolutionary period, and the last hope of the French monarchy.

The constitution had already been completed by the spring of 1791. In May, Robespierre had carried a self-denying ordinance which was destined to ruin all that had been accomplished. It was decided that no member of the present assembly should be admissible either as an elector or as a deputy to its successor. This entrusted the government at a critical time to men without experience, who would naturally be induced to question the wisdom of their predecessors, and who would be elected at a time of unparalleled excitement. The adoption of this lamentable and fatal decree was due to a combination of the extreme left with the reckless party of reaction, who cared little to what evils they exposed France so long as they overthrew the hated constitution. The last few months were passed in revising the work already accomplished, and only the firmness of the moderate majority prevented the adoption of fundamental changes. Finally, to secure the permanence of their creation, they decreed that "the nation has the right to revise its constitution when it pleases; but the assembly declares that its interest invites it to suspend that right for thirty years."

On the 3d of September the constitution was submitted to the king, who demanded time for its consideration. On the 14th he issued a letter in which he said: "I accept the constitution. I engage to maintain it within, to defend it against all attacks from without, to enforce its execution by all the means that it places at my disposal: I declare that, informed of the adhesion which the

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Death of  
 Mirabeau

Last  
 Hope of  
 French  
 Mon-  
 archy

Revision  
 of Con-  
 stitution

Louis  
 Accepts  
 Constitu-  
 tion

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Assem-  
bly Ad-  
journs

great majority of the people gives to the constitution, I renounce the share which I had claimed in the work; that, as I am responsible to the nation alone, no one else, when I have made this renunciation, has the right to complain." The last acts of the constituent assembly were a futile attack upon the Jacobin club, and a decree of amnesty to all persons accused and imprisoned for complicity in the king's flight. On the 30th of September it dissolved itself.

Effect on  
Foreign  
Powers

The course of events in France was naturally followed with the keenest interest and anxiety by the European powers. The declaration of the rights of man involved open hostility to the principles on which the government of other states was carried on. The spread of the revolutionary propaganda, which was avowed as an object by so many of the most enthusiastic Frenchmen, was a danger which could not be disregarded by rulers who wished to maintain the old régime. Many of the sovereigns of Europe were allied by family ties with the royal family of France, and regarded their sufferings with unmingled pity and horror. The kings of Spain and Naples were themselves Bourbons, and looked up to Louis XVI as the head of their house. The king of Sardinia, Amadeus III, was the father-in-law of the Count of Artois. The successive emperors, Joseph II and Leopold II, and also the elector of Cologne, were brothers of Marie Antoinette. Moreover, open inroads were made upon the rights of neighboring princes at the very outbreak of the revolution. The county of Venaissin and the city of Avignon had belonged to the papacy ever since the fourteenth century, but in consequence of disorders which were aroused by the civil constitution of the church, the constituent assembly had decreed their union with France, and their formation into an eighty-fourth department. Again, in Alsace and other border-provinces which had once belonged to the empire, a number of rights and possessions had been expressly reserved by treaty to several German princes. All these were abolished by the famous resolutions of the 4th of August, and by the subsequent measures to effect the unity of France. Although compensation had been offered, it was too scanty to be accepted.

These circumstances gave great encouragement to the hopes of the royal family, who never disguised their policy of forming a European coalition against France, and restoring the old system

of government with the help of an irresistible force. They established a sort of court at Coblentz, and their followers thronged in all the neighboring towns of the Rhine district. The king's broth-

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AMIENS CATHEDRAL

ers claimed to represent the real government of France, and as such to conduct independent negotiations. They were utterly reckless of the dangers to which their conduct exposed Louis XVI; and when he remonstrated with them, they replied that they knew he was not a free agent, and therefore they would pay no

Royal  
 Court at  
 Coblentz

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Leopold  
II  
of Ger-  
manyProcla-  
mation of  
Leopold  
II and  
Frederick  
William

attention to letters which must be dictated to him. By a visit to Turin the Count of Artois had secured the co-operation of his father-in-law, the king of Sardinia. The kings of Naples and Spain expressed their willingness to fulfil their obligations as members of the House of Bourbon. Gustavus III, of Sweden, who had restored autocracy in his own kingdom, was eager to head a crusade in the cause of monarchy. He was encouraged by his recent enemy, Catharine II, of Russia, who saw a grand advantage for her plans in the East if she could involve the Western powers in a great war with France. The susceptible Frederick William II, of Prussia, who looked back with complacency to the ease with which he had restored the stadtholder in The Hague, and who was profoundly touched by the disasters of Louis XVI, was not likely to refuse to join in a general movement for his assistance. But the man to whom every one looked to decide the question whether Europe should or should not interfere in France, was the cool and cautious emperor Leopold II. He had escaped from most of the difficulties which the imprudence of his elder brother had bequeathed to him. He had avoided a threatened rupture with Prussia by the treaty of Reichenbach; he had put down the rising in Belgium, and had appeased the internal troubles of Hungary. At first sight it seemed that he must inevitably espouse the cause of the falling French monarchy. But Leopold was opposed by temperament to hasty measures and to a military policy, and, like Joseph II, he made the interests of Austria his first care. He had not yet arranged terms of peace with the Porte, and until then his relations with Prussia were uncertain. Above everything he was anxious about the ambition of Russia, and was determined not to leave Catharine free to carry out her will in Turkey and Poland. On the 27th of August Leopold and Frederick William held a conference at Pilnitz. To their ill-concealed disgust the Count of Artois thrust his presence upon them, and demanded their consent to a ready-made scheme in which the selfish arrogance of the emigrants (royal family) was clearly displayed. The scheme was definitely rejected, and the emigrants were warned that, though their residence on German soil was tolerated, they would not be allowed to conduct armed preparations. The emperor and king then issued a joint declaration, in which they maintained that the restoration of order and of monarchy in France were matters of

great moment for the whole of Europe, invited the other powers to co-operate with them in the work, and "*then and in that case*" promised active intervention. The italicized words give the key to Leopold's policy. He was determined to avoid a war if possible. He knew already that Pitt's ministry had virtually decided on the neutrality of England, and that therefore the hypothetical case in which action was necessary could not exist. Leopold urged Louis XVI to accept the constitution, and was delighted when the king followed his advice on the 14th of September. As Louis now recovered his crown, and at any rate nominally his liberty, the emperor issued a circular to announce that the necessity for a European coalition no longer existed. The question whether there should be war or not depended now upon the attitude of France itself.

The second national assembly of France, which had been chosen according to the terms of the new constitution

during the existence of its predecessor, held its first sitting on the 1st of October. There were three distinct parties: the Feuillants, who supported firmly the constitution, with Dumas, Beugnot, and Vaublanc as leaders; on the left were those who wished to develop the Revolution and introduce a republic. They were divided into the Jacobins and the Girondists. The Jacobins were backed by Robespierre, while the guiding spirit of the Girondists was Madame Roland, whose husband was one of the deputies. Besides these three divisions there were about two hundred independent members. From the first it was evident that the relations of the

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Second  
 National  
 Assembly

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king with the assembly was not likely to be very cordial. The Revolution was threatened by two dangerous enemies, the emigrants, who were urging on a foreign invasion, and the non-juring bishops and priests, who were doing all in their power to excite domestic rebellion. The latter were really the more dangerous and already their bitter denunciations of the "intruders," as they called the clergy who accepted the civil constitution, had aroused tumults in Calvados, Gevaudan, and La Vendee.

The Girondists clamored for repressive measures. On the 30th of October it was decreed that the Count of Provence, unless he returned within two months, should forfeit all rights to the regency. On the 9th of November an edict threatened the emigrants with confiscation and death unless they returned to their allegiance before the end of the year.

Throughout the winter attention was devoted almost exclusively to foreign affairs. It has been seen that the emperor was really eager for peace, and that as long as he remained in that mood there was little risk of any other prince taking the initiative. The Girondists, the most susceptible of men, only expressed the national sentiment in dwelling upon this with bitterness and in calling for vengeance. At the same time they had conceived the definite idea that their own supremacy could best be obtained and secured by forcing on a foreign war. The first great step was taken when Duportail, who had charge of military affairs, was replaced by Narbonne, a Feuillant. The Girondists combined all their efforts for an attack upon the minister of foreign affairs, Delessart, whom they accused of truckling to the enemies of the nation. Delessart was committed to prison, and his colleagues at once resigned. The Gironde now came into office. The ministry of home affairs was given to Roland. Dumouriez obtained the foreign department, Duranthon that of justice, and Lacoste the marine. Dumouriez introduced a more dictatorial tone into the foreign relations, and provoked an answer from Vienna in which was demanded the establishment of order in France for the security of Europe, and the restoration to their rights, of the pope, the clergy, and the German princes. This settled the question, and on the 20th of April Louis XVI appeared in the assembly, and read with trembling voice a declaration of war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia.

Power  
of the  
Giron-  
dists

Reverses to the French troops caused a popular uprising, and the Tuileries, after a sanguinary combat, were taken and sacked. The king took refuge with his family in the assembly, which was invaded and compelled to submit to the dictation of the victors by assenting to the suspension of the king and the convocation of a National Convention in place of the assembly. Not only the monarchy but the assembly was now at the mercy of the mob. The supreme power was in the hands of the Revolutionary Commune of Paris. The assembly could do nothing but register the decrees dictated to them. The Girondists, Roland, Servan, and Clavierre, were restored to office.

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 The  
 Tuileries  
 Sacked

Meanwhile the danger of invasion was as great as ever. On the 30th of July the Prussians, under the command of Brunswick, but accompanied by the king, had started from Coblentz and marched by Luxemburg to the frontier of Champagne. They were opposed by two armies under the command of Lafayette and Luckner, while a third French force under Biron and Custine defended Alsace. Then came the news of the 10th of August, and the question was raised whether the army, like the majority of the departments, would approve the action of the Parisians. Lafayette did not hesitate to pronounce against the Jacobins, and called upon Luckner to march with him upon Paris to restore order. But the soldiers were not prepared to take such an extreme course, and the other officers, with Dumouriez at their head, maintained that the duty of Frenchmen was to oppose the foreign enemy rather than their fellow countrymen. Lafayette, declared a traitor by the assembly and deserted even by Luckner, gave up all hope, and fled with his friends toward Holland. On his way he was arrested by the enemy, who treated him as a prisoner of war, and detained him in close confinement till the treaty of Campo-Formio. His command was given to Dumouriez, and Luckner was replaced by Kellermann. These disorders gave a great advantage to the Prussians. Longwy capitulated on the 23d of August, and the fall of Verdun on the 2d of September left the road open to Paris.

Danger  
 of Inva-  
 sion

Directly after the fall of Verdun, Dumouriez, assisted by the lethargic movements of the Prussians, hastened to occupy the passes of the forest of Argonne. The French troops, which were beginning to be inspired by the revolutionary spirit, showed an unexpected firmness which astounded both the Prussians and the

Paris  
 Exposed

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France  
 Declared  
 a Republic

French  
 Nobility  
 Demoralized

emigrants. This slight success decided the campaign, and from this moment the invaders began to retreat. Dumouriez had saved France.

By this time the elections to the convention had taken place. The rules prescribed by the constitution were no longer observed. Every Frenchman over twenty-one years of age was considered an active citizen, and every such citizen over twenty-five was eligible as an elector or as deputy. No exclusive regulation was any longer in force, so that members both of the constituent and of the legislative assembly could be chosen. On the 21st of September, the day after the cannonade at Valmy, the convention met, and its first act was to declare that France was no longer a monarchy, but a republic.

Under the old régime, thus abruptly brought to an end, the grades of nobility had become so numerous that their members stood in the ratio of 1 to 250 of the entire population. Nevertheless, every grade of nobility exempted its holder from the payment of the ordinary land tax, from the charge of maintaining the public roads, from military conscription, etc. The nobles paid the capitation tax, but in very unequal proportions, although the landed property was vested almost entirely in their hands. They, in fact, together with the clergy, monopolized the principal share of the national revenues, and left to the lower classes the burden of labor and of paying the taxes. At the outbreak of the Revolution the French nobility were sunk in profligacy, and fallen to the lowest stage of demoralization. The clergy kept pace with the nobles in general depravity, and while their aggregate revenues amounted, according to Necker, to 130,000,000 of livres, and their landed property stood in the proportion of 1 to  $5\frac{3}{4}$  of that of all other proprietors, their contributions toward the maintenance of the state were inadequate and irregular. The third estate were crushed by the weight of an unjust taxation, which was rendered more obnoxious by the system of farming out some of the taxes. The most tyrannical of these was the tax on salt. The municipal institutions which had been permitted to flourish under some of the Valois princes in the Middle Ages, were almost entirely abolished, and the offices of towns, like those of the state and the courts of justice, were either hereditary or open to purchase. The third estate, which included professional men and all who were not



members of the noble or the clerical order, saw themselves utterly excluded from all participation in the privileges and duties of free citizens at the very time when their minds were drawn to the discussion of questions of political independence, equal rights, and universal freedom.

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NAPOLEON

PAINTING BY PAUL DELAROCHE

The 22d of September, 1792, was the "first day of the year 1 of the republic. In December the king was brought to trial, and called upon to answer for repeated acts of treason against the republic. On the 20th of January, 1793, sentence of death was passed upon him, and the following day he was beheaded. Revolts

King  
 Tried for  
 Treason

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 Marie  
 Antoi-  
 nette  
 Beheaded

burst out in every part of France. England, Holland, Spain, Naples, and the German states combined together against the republic. Christianity was now formally repudiated, and the sacredness and the worship of *Reason* solemnized. Marie Antoinette, the widowed queen, was guillotined; the dauphin and his surviving relatives suffered every indignity. A reign of blood and terror succeeded. Danton and Robespierre, after having condemned countless numbers to the guillotine, suffered each in turn a similar fate. After the destruction of the terrorists, a reaction gradually set in; the people were weary of bloodshed, and anxious for peace and order at any price. In 1793-95 and later, insurrections took place in La Vendee on behalf of the white flag, but were quenched in blood.

Napoleon  
 in Italy

The brilliant exploits of the young general, Napoleon Bonaparte, in Italy, turned men's thoughts into fresh channels. In 1795 a general amnesty was declared, peace was concluded with Prussia and Spain, and the war was carried on with redoubled vigor against Austria. The revolution had reached a turning-point.

A Directory was formed to administer the government, which was now conducted in a spirit of order and conciliation. In 1797

The  
 Directory

Bonaparte and his brother commanders were omnipotent in Italy; Austria was compelled to give up Belgium and recognize the Cisalpine Republic. The glory of the French arms was re-established abroad, but at home the nation was still suffering from the shock of the Revolution. The Directory repudiated two thirds of the national debt, and thus almost ruined the commerce and credit of France. Under the pretext of attacking England, a fleet of 400 ships and an army of 36,000 picked men were equipped; their destination proved, however, to be Egypt, whither the Directory sent

Bona-  
 parte in  
 Egypt

Bonaparte; but the young general resigning the command to Kleber, landed in France in 1799. The Directory fell on the famous "18th Brumaire" (November 9, 1799). Under the constitution of Sieyes the state was put under consuls, who, unlike those of Rome, were three in number, with different degrees of authority.

Three  
 Consuls

Napoleon secured supreme power as First Consul. In 1800 a new constitution was promulgated, vesting the sole executive power in Bonaparte, who showed consummate skill in reorganizing the government, to which he imparted a systematic efficiency and a spirit of centralization that secured a thoroughly practical administration. Having resumed his command, he marched an army

Napoleon  
 First  
 Consul

Victory  
 at  
 Marengo

over the Alps, attacked the Austrians unawares, and decided the fate of Italy by his victory at Marengo.\* In 1801 the Peace of Luneville was concluded, and the boundaries of France were once more extended to the Rhine.

England was the only country which refused to recognize the various Italian and German conquests made by France; and, with the exception of a brief period of peace, England remained the implacable foe of Bonaparte from the days of his consulate to the defeat at Waterloo. Every period of respite from war was employed by the First Consul in fostering trade and industry, and in obliterating both in public and private life the stains left by the the Reign of Terror.

In 1804, on an appeal by universal suffrage to the nation, Bonaparte was proclaimed emperor. The Pope came to Paris to crown him and his wife Josephine; a new nobility was rapidly created, and the relatives and favorites of the emperor received vanquished kingdoms and principalities at his hands. For a time Napoleon's influence with the weakened powers of the Continent succeeded in maintaining an injurious system of blockade against England, but the strength of England on the seas soon compelled Napoleon to make his chief attack on Austria, while England and Russia once more drew together against him. In 1805 his grand army penetrated into the valley of the Danube, took Ulm, and in spite of the king of Prussia's accession to the coalition, pushed on as far as Vienna. Napoleon occupied all the upper and middle Danube valley, and then marched northward in pursuit of the Emperor Francis of Austria, who had fled into Moravia. On the 2d of December, 1805, he won the great battle of Austerlitz, which for the time reduced the allies to impotence. Peace followed at Presburg (December 26, 1805) between France and Austria, by which that ancient power was parted out among its neighbors.

Two months before this, the decisive battle of Trafalgar had finally disposed of the remaining naval force of France and Spain (October 21, 1805), and, leaving England in complete security,

\* Marengo is a village of northern Italy, in a marshy district near the Bormida, three miles southeast of Alessandria. Here on the 14th of June, 1800, Napoleon, with 33,000 French, defeated 30,500 Austrians under Melas. It was the cavalry charge of the younger Kellermann that turned what looked like certain defeat into a decisive victory, though the French lost 7,000 in killed and wounded, the Austrians only 6,400 (besides 3,000 prisoners).

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England  
Opposed  
to Bona-  
parte

Bona-  
parte  
Becomes  
Emperor  
in 1804

Napoleon  
at Ulm  
and Aus-  
terlitz

Defeat at  
Trafalgar

Marengo

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## FRANCE

Napo-  
leon's  
Plan of  
"Federa-  
tion of  
States"

enabled her to continue, without fear, her task of obstinate resistance, at the very moment when France seemed to have completely triumphed over the united hostility of Continental Europe.

The emperor at once, characteristically guided by his love of grand conceptions and far-reaching combinations, set himself to surround France with a great system of "federative states of the empire," in "three compact nations of Italians, Germans, Spaniards." But if he overrated his own constructive genius, he underrated the obstinacy of his enemies, and soon found himself met by a fourth coalition, against which he proposed to build up the Confederacy of the Rhine, and to restore the dependence of the lesser German princes on France, and so to carry out the ideas of Henry IV of Richelieu and Mazarin.

War, however, broke out in a different quarter. The restoration by France, of Hanover to England—a part of the series of negotiations which followed the peace of Presburg, and the death of Pitt—roused the utmost anger in Prussia, and led to new combinations, as a consequence of which the king of Prussia, without waiting for help from England or Russia, rushed into war in September, 1806. The battle of Jena, October 14, 1806, and Auerstadt, completely overthrew the Prussian power, and the conquest of Prussia was completed before the end of the year, and before the Russians had time to come up to the succor of their allies. A winter campaign followed, in which the sufferings of the troops and the obstinate resistance of the Russians at Pultusk and Eylau, February 8, 1807, arrested the triumphant movement of the emperor for a time. In the summer of 1807, having secured the line of the Vistula, he defeated the Russians at Friedland (June 14), and took Königsberg. The treaty of Tilsit, July 7, 1807, followed; for Russia needed rest, and Napoleon was not sorry to pause. It is the highest point of the emperor's renown. His hand was felt throughout all Europe; it seemed as if England alone was beyond his power.

Prussia  
Con-  
queredRussia  
Stays the  
Progress  
of Napo-  
leonFrench  
Power in  
Spain

The determination of the emperor to rearrange the whole map of Europe, and to assert his power in every quarter, led him to that Spanish war whence sprang the resistance which at last overthrew him. For he decided on subduing the whole peninsula, including Portugal; the Portuguese court took flight to Brazil on the approach of Junot, and Charles IV of Spain abdicated when Murat





MARIE ANTOINETTE

threatened Madrid. Napoleon at once placed Joseph Bonaparte, a very incompetent person, on the Spanish throne; and when the Spaniards showed their irritation with him, he too abdicated, and gave place to Murat, who had married Caroline, sister of the emperor. Then the Spaniards rose in revolt, and that wearing guerrilla warfare began which opened the way for the successful arms of England. The capitulation of Baylen ruined for the time the French power in Spain; Dupont and Vedel were compelled to lay down their arms; in Portugal England now began to appear, and on August 21, 1808, Sir Arthur Wellesley won the battle of Vimiera. When Napoleon found that, as thus in Spain, the peoples rose against him, he ought to have recognized the hollowness of his friendships with the kings. He longed, however, to be one of their comity, as well as to have vassal kings and princes under himself; to this end he had created a new and high-sounding aristocracy around his throne; for this end, when Germany, led by Austria, now began again to move against him, Napoleon drew toward Russia, and was completely duped by the emperor Alexander. Having, as he thought, made all safe on that side, he turned his attention to Spain, and, in spite of guerrilla warfare, entered Madrid, December 4, 1808. Sir John Moore, who from the west coast had penetrated as far as Salamanca, was driven back by Soult supported by the emperor, and after the battle of Corunna (January 14, 1809), in which he fought at bay and lost his life, the English had to embark and withdraw. The siege of Saragossa, however, contested with all the tenacity and devotion of the Spanish character, wore out the strength of the French forces, and their tenure of Spain was felt to be most precarious.

Now followed a fifth coalition against Napoleon, whose subjects at home were beginning to show signs of exhaustion. Still, when his army marched into Bavaria, it seemed as strong, as enthusiastic, and as well commanded as ever. By splendid combinations, and a series of victories, Napoleon swept down the Danube valley, and took Vienna. Ere long he was checked by the terrible battle of Gross Aspern, or Essling (21st and 22d of May, 1809), just below Vienna, in which his victory was purchased at a price he could ill afford. He had to pause, while the Austrian court gathered itself together in Moravia. When he saw this, and felt that all Europe was beginning to move against him, he, too, gathered up his

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Fifth  
 Coalition  
 against  
 Napoleon

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strength, and marching against the Austrians, defeated them, under the command of the archduke Charles, in the decisive battle of Wagram (5th and 6th of July, 1809), a victory which, while it ruined for the time the military power of Austria, also weakened him to a dangerous point. It was therefore at once followed by the armistice of Znaim, which led, in a short time, to the hollow peace of Vienna. This agreement broke up the coalition, handed over to Napoleon the Illyrian provinces with a part of Tyrol, and gave him an imperial bride in Maria Louisa, daughter of the Austrian emperor.

Napoleon at once returned to Paris to celebrate his marriage, and to organize afresh his vast empire. Nothing escaped his care; he coerced the press, rearranged finance, which had grown to be a very heavy burden; saw that the church was duly submissive and duly paid; and held the pope in honorable bondage at Savona. In other parts things went not amiss; the foolish Walcheren expedition moldered away; in Spain, Wellington held out with difficulty against Spanish indolence and corruption, and the genius of Marshal Soult.

Napoleon's  
Turning-  
Point

The lines of Torres Vedras (1810-11), which the English general defended against Massena, form the turning-point of the history of Napoleon's triumphs. His last great victory was Essling; henceforward his successes will bring no lasting good; his failures will draw him toward his fall. The successful winter in the Torres Vedras lines was followed by Wellington's famous campaign of Almeida, Badajoz, and Ciudad-Rodrigo (1811-12), in which the English general separated Soult and Massena, while he secured for himself a splendid base of operations for the future.

War in  
1812

But before this, the flattering friendship of Russia had turned to gall. Ever since the end of 1809 Napoleon had seen how hollow all was in the north, and at last, early in 1812, war broke out. Napoleon, misled by brilliant schemes, and ever trustful to his star, determined at once to crush the resistance of Russia; as he had entered Berlin, Madrid, and Vienna, so he would also enter Moscow, and thence at last dictate peace to all the world. He seemed to think that he had two things only to do, "*conscribe et prescire*," to summon up and sacrifice the whole youth of France as conscripts, and then to prescribe his own terms to Europe.







NAPOLEON IN IMPERIAL ROBES

This terrible blunder cost him his throne. He left his soldiers in Spain to take care of themselves; though he must have seen that they were almost as much in want of help as that army had been which he so selfishly left behind him in Egypt. With this difficulty in his rear, and the vast distances, huge armies, and terrible climate of Russia before him, he set forth in the spring of 1812 on his famous and fatal march to Moscow. He crossed the Niemen, and reaching Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, halted there to recruit his troops (June, 1812), which were in unusual disorder. Here he proclaimed his sympathy for Poland, while he tried not to offend the Austrians or to unsettle their share of the dismembered kingdom. Negotiations also went on; the Emperor of Russia offered terms, which were refused at once; Bernadotte, now by election prince-royal of Sweden (August 21, 1810), who knew the character of his late master, also had dealings with Napoleon, while at the same time he made alliance with the czar, and began a sixth coalition against France; England joined the new league, and Turkey made peace with Russia.

Still Napoleon persevered; he won the hard-fought battle of Smolensk (August 17, 1812), though he did not succeed in cutting off the retreat of the Russians, who burned everything as they withdrew, leaving a desert for the French. The terrible battle of Borodino, one of the hardest struggles in history, gave Napoleon a victory, though the Russians again withdrew in good order September 7. They did not attempt to defend Moscow, retiring thence, and leaving the capital as "a snare in which the ruin of the foe was inevitable." And so it proved; the French army entered Moscow in triumph, and Napoleon established himself at the Kremlin (September 15); the next day the whole town burst into flames; after five days nothing was standing save the churches, and perhaps a tenth of the city. It was savage as it was heroic; at any rate, it was completely successful. The emperor Alexander spurned all overtures for peace; his armies grew more threatening; the French communications were clearly unsafe; the winter was not far off; it looked as if Napoleon might even be shut up in Moscow. The great retreat was inevitable. In the middle of October the French army began to pour out of the gates of Moscow, and then began a running battle at every point. The army bled at every pore, and Ney with the utmost heroism protected the rear.

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EUROPE

ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERN

FRANCE

March to  
MoscowNapoleon  
Enters  
MoscowThe City  
Burned

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ANCIENT  
AND  
MODERN

FRANCE

Fatal  
Retreat  
from  
Moscow

At last Napoleon reached Wilna; there the worst of the pursuit seemed to be over, and there was both food and raiment; there he, leaving Murat in command, abandoned the shattered remnant of the grand army, and took flight to France (December 5, 1812). The remainder of the retreat was even more ruinous than what had gone before; it was but a handful out of so great a host that reached the frontiers of France again. Of 450,000 men who set forth probably not 100,000 returned.

In Spain, affairs had been almost as bad for France. Early in 1812 Wellington had taken Ciudad-Rodrigo and Badajoz, and then advancing into Spain, defeated Marmont and the French at Salamanca (July 22, 1812), and occupied Madrid. In the autumn, Soult, by able dispositions and a stronger force, compelled him to retreat again to Ciudad-Rodrigo. The campaign had shown the weakness of the French occupation, while it had greatly lessened their resources and the part of the Spanish territory at their disposal.

Napoleon  
Declares  
War  
upon  
Prussia

France still worshiped her chief. The new and severe conscription gave him another vast army; and he set forth to punish Prussia, which had declared war against him, in concert with Russia. The Germans always have honored this period of their history as a great resurrection, and as the birth time of their true national life. The emperor passed through Mainz to Erfurt, and fought his first battle, a severe one, on the plain of Lutzen; the defeated Prussians and Russians fell back in good order through Dresden, Napoleon following them hard, defeating them and driving them out of their intrenched camp at Bautzen (20th and 21st of May, 1813), whence they retreated again in perfect order. It was evident that the temper of the Germans had entirely changed since Jena. An armistice, which followed, led to much negotiation at Dresden, where Napoleon's headquarters lay. The upshot of it all was that Austria joined Russia and Prussia, and the war went on. The attack of the allies on Dresden lasted two days (26th and 27th of August), and ended in their repulse and defeat; Russian supports came up in October, and it was plain that they were going to cut the French communications, and coop Napoleon up in Dresden for the winter. The king of Bavaria at this moment joined the allies, and made the emperor's position still more precarious. He now withdrew from Dresden, and near

Decisive  
Defeat at  
Leipsic

Leipsic came into collision with his enemies, who were waiting for him there. On the 16th of October, 1813, began one of the decisive battles in the world's history. Napoleon's forces were far outnumbered by those of the allies; and some of his German troops deserted in the thick of the fight. The battle raged on the 16th and the 18th; on the 19th Napoleon, completely defeated, began to withdraw. At Hanau he overthrew Wrede, and cut a passage for his army; the victorious emperors followed closely on his heels, and hardly half his men reached home. The campaign had broken to pieces the dominance of France in Europe; and all the imperial creations — the confederation of the Rhine, the kingdom of Westphalia, the republic of Bavaria — came to an end. George III resumed the electorate of Hanover; Austria recovered her lost provinces.

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In Spain the throne of Joseph Bonaparte fell, for the battle of Vittoria (21st of June 1812) had utterly destroyed the power of the French in the peninsula. Wellington drove them out of Spain, and in spite of the vigor and ability of Soult, the two great frontier fortresses of Pampeluna and St. Sebastian fell.

France  
 Loses  
 Spain

Wellington entered southern France, and in November threatened Bayonne. Napoleon could only complain, with the tone of an irritated master, that he had been defeated by the treason of his servants; that is, of his German subjects.

On his return to Paris, the emperor found the tone of feeling very much changed. In the legislative body men ventured to denounce his rule; such outspoken words had not been heard for years. He angrily replied: "To attack me is to attack the nation," and abruptly closed their session. Henceforth he would rule alone, and alone with the ruins of his armies face the terrible invasion that was coming on. The whole conditions of his warfare changed; he must now act on the defensive, and bear to see France trodden underfoot, as France, till now, had trodden all Europe under her feet.

Popular  
 Feeling  
 against  
 Napoleon

The allies came in almost without resistance in three armies: the Austrians from Basel advancing to Langres; Blucher, with the Prussians, crossed the Vosges to Nancy; the army of the North, Russians and Prussians, came down to Namur, and thence to Laon. In all there were fully 200,000 of them, a force quite double that at the emperor's disposal. They all sat on the inner

Invasion  
 of  
 France

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slopes of the mountains which form the northern, northeastern, and eastern defenses of France, awaiting the moment to advance. Napoleon had the one great advantage of the inner line. But after fighting the severe battle of Arcis-sur-Aube, he tried to paralyze the allies by striking at their communications, and so lost his one advantage; for they, instead of hesitating, marched boldly on for Paris, defeated Mortier and Marmont in the very suburbs, and forced the proud capital to surrender before Napoleon could come up to its defense.



NOTRE DAME, PARIS

Napoleon's  
 Downfall  
 Decreed

The allied emperors were received with cries of "Long live the king!" "Long live the emperor Alexander!" A provisional government of senators decreed the downfall of Napoleon; the other constituted bodies followed; the imperial government was swept away in an instant. The emperor, amazed at this sudden impulse of the country, abdicated (April 6, 1814) on behalf of his son, and finally (April 11) he abdicated completely, offering himself, as he said, a "personal sacrifice" to France. His titles, honors, an ample income, and the island of Elba in full sovereignty, were left to him.

The restoration of the Bourbons followed at once. Louis XVIII appeared in Paris, the protégé of foreign bayonets, and not ashamed to own that he owed his return to outside help. Peace followed at once; France shrank back to her old dimensions, as she had been in 1792, with some slight modifications. Louis XVIII lastly promulgated a new charter, granting some constitutional rights to his subjects. The document was dated as of the nineteenth year of his reign, as though Napoleon and the Revolution had never been. The peerage was restored, its numbers now unlimited except by the king's will, who alone could appoint peers; a chamber of deputies, elected by a limited suffrage, had really but little power, and the king reserved to himself the initiative of all laws; the Roman Catholic religion was declared the faith of the state, and full toleration was granted to all residents. This was the constitutionalism of the reaction. It showed how far France had traveled since the days of the old régime. There was no question of ancient privileges or of feudal usages; the very name of states-general had disappeared. No reaction, however severe, ever brings things back to the point from which they had drifted; France could never again be what she had been under Louis XIV.

A congress at once assembled at Vienna, under Metternich's presidency, with a view to a peaceful resettlement of Europe. It was, however, suddenly turned to warlike thoughts by the startling news that Napoleon, leaving Elba, had landed near Cannes (March 1, 1815). He appealed to citizens and soldiers alike; he appealed to the people; he spoke only of peace and liberty, and a popular constitution. The army at once saluted him again as its emperor; France with a spontaneous plebiscite restored him to his throne, and Louis XVIII fled to Ghent. Napoleon entered Paris amid delirious transports of delight. Cooler reflections soon followed, when the declaration of the allied sovereigns was heard, and troubles began in the old royalist districts. Nor were men better pleased when it was seen that Napoleon returned at once to his old despotic manner of governing; signs of alienation showed themselves.

The allied armies drew toward the frontiers of France. Blücher, with his Prussians, came down to join Wellington, who had landed in Flanders, and Napoleon hastened up to prevent their union. He sent Ney to encounter and check the English, while he himself

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 Louis  
 XVIII

General  
 Peace

Napoleon  
 Leaves  
 Elba

France  
 Restores  
 Napoleon  
 to His  
 Throne

The  
 Allies  
 Again

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tried to destroy the Prussians. He found them at Ligny, where; on June 16, 1815, he defeated them, though Ney was unable to force Quatre Bras, so as to be ready to fall on their flank and complete the route. The consequence was that Blücher drew off his army unbroken to Wavre; and Wellington, to keep near him, also fell back to the village of Waterloo, where he could both cover Brussels and await the Prussians.

Battle of  
 Waterloo  
 June 18,  
 1815

There, on the 18th of June, 1815, took place the battle of Waterloo, in which Napoleon and Ney made their final effort for the empire. The object of Wellington was to hold his ground till Blücher could come up; the object of Napoleon was, by detaching Grouchy toward Wavre, to hinder the Prussians, till he could crush the English. Grouchy, however, let himself be deluded by a single Prussian corps, while Blücher slowly made his way toward Waterloo; and Wellington's Englishmen and Germans, with heroic tenacity, had held their ground against all attacks. In the afternoon the Prussians began to come up, and after the repulse of the French guards toward evening, Napoleon knew that all was lost. He entrusted his shattered army to Soult, and fled headlong to Paris. There, finding all hope gone, he once more abdicated, on behalf of his son. He withdrew to Rochefort, hoping to find means of escaping to America; but the English cruisers rendered this impossible, and he threw himself on the generosity of his hated foes. He was taken on board the *Bellerophon*, and conveyed as a state prisoner to the island of St. Helena, where he lived, the mere shadow of his former self, in a hated and inglorious ease, till death released him in 1821, at the age of fifty-two.

Napoleon  
 at St.  
 Helena

The  
 Bour-  
 bons  
 Restored

The second restoration gave occasion to many pledges of a more liberal policy on the part of Louis, and a general and sullen discontent reigned among the people, who were again deprived of all voice in the administration or in the election to offices, and were harassed by the petty tyranny of the priests, who were the favored advisers of the crown. In 1821 Napoleon breathed his last at St. Helena; and in 1824 Louis XVIII died without direct heirs, when his brother, the Duc d'Artois, succeeded as Charles X. The same ministerial incapacity, want of good faith, general discontent, and excessive priestly influence characterized this reign, which was abruptly brought to a close by the revolution of 1830, and the election to the throne of Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, as king

Revolu-  
 tion of  
 1830



by the will of the people. Progress in material prosperity made his government popular with the bourgeoisie, or middle classes, and for a time he held his ground. The warlike propensities of the nation found an outlet in the war in Algeria with Abd-el-Kader. But the determined resistance of the king to the growing desire for electoral reform led at last to open insurrection in Paris.

Louis Philippe abdicated February 24, 1848, and a republic was proclaimed under a provisional government. An insurrection of

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Republic  
 Pro-  
 claimed



NAPOLEON AT WATERLOO

PAINTING BY STEUBLN

the Red Republicans in Paris (June, 1848) was only put down after great slaughter. Louis Napoleon was elected president of the republic in 1848; but, by the famous *coup d'état* of December 2, 1851, he violently set aside the constitution and assumed dictatorial powers; and a year after (December 2, 1852), he was raised by the almost unanimous voice of the nation to the dignity of emperor, as Napoleon III.

Louis  
 Napoleon  
 Made  
 Emperor  
 1852

The constitution of this second empire was the same as that of the first. A senate and a legislative body, shorn of all effectual parliamentary rights, screened badly the emperor's complete abso-

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Napoleon  
III Assumes  
Character  
of  
Adjuster

lutism, under which, however, France made great advances in the development of her natural resources and in manufactures. Assuming the character of an adjuster of the wrongs of nations, Napoleon proclaimed himself a mediator in the Danish and Austro-Prussian wars, and the defender of the Italians against Austria, of the pope against the people of Italy, and of the Mexicans against the government of the United States of America.

By his help the Italians were relieved from the Austrian yoke, and the pope was left master of Rome; but in Mexico his intervention only led to greater bloodshed, and ended ignominiously for his arms, and fatally for the cause and life of his protégé, the Austrian prince, Maximilian. He acted better beside England in the Crimean war (1854–56), and entered upon a wise economic policy by signing with that country a treaty of commerce (1860) on free-trade lines.

Although the brilliant success of the Paris Exhibition of 1867 seemed to afford evidence of the personal and national consideration in which the emperor was held, his political credit had already then lost its importance. At home the great financial embarrassments of his government were arousing the discontent of the people; and to avert the growing disaffection Napoleon offered (1869) to adopt a constitutional form of government, and to make some concessions in regard to the freedom of the press. It was soon found that the responsibility of the ministry was fictitious, and that the emperor availed himself of its protection to cloak his own acts of personal misgovernment. The result of the appeal made to the nation in 1870, on the plea of securing their sanction for his policy, was not what he had anticipated; and the 50,000 dissentient votes given by the troops in this plebiscite revealed a hitherto unsuspected source of danger. Confident in the efficiency of the army, and anxious to rekindle its ardor, he availed himself of a pretext to declare war against Prussia.

At War  
with  
Prussia

The course of events in the short but terrible Franco-German conflict of 1870–71 astonished Europe by its unexpected character, revealing at once the solidity of Prussian strength, and the hollowness of imperial power in France. War was declared on the 15th of July, and it had been the intention of the French emperor to cross the Rhine at Maxan, and push his armies between the north and south German states so as to force the latter into neutrality.

Such action required superiority in numbers and mobility at the very onset, besides good generalship. These advantages were soon found to be all on the side of the Germans, whose perfect organization enabled every detail of mobilization to be completed by the 30th of July. Their troops, 518,800 men, with 1,584 guns, were then formed into three armies: the first under General Steinmetz, the second under Prince Frederick Charles, and the third under the Crown Prince.

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 German  
 Superior  
 Organi-  
 zation

The French had with difficulty collected 270,000 men with 925 guns by the beginning of August, and these were deficient in transport and equipment. The emperor assumed the chief command, and had 128,000 men between Metz and the frontier at Saarbruck, some 47,000 under Marshal Mc Mahon on the eastern slopes of the Vosges Mountains, and 35,000 in reserve at Chalons. The first engagement took place on August 2, when General Frossard's corps drove out the weak German detachment at Saarbruck, but did not push its success, and the Germans took the offensive next day. On the 4th, the third army (130,000) on the German left met General Douay's advanced brigade near Wissembourg, defeated him, and pressed on to Worth, where Mc Mahon had taken up a strong position with his main body (45,000). The battle fought here on the 6th was disastrous to the French, who fled in confusion through the Vosges Mountains. On the same day the battle of Spicheren was fought between 67,000 of the first German army and 32,000 of Frossard's corps, and ended in the orderly retreat of the latter. As a result of these disasters the emperor found it necessary to retire toward Metz, and, after the fierce and undecided rearguard action at Borny on the 14th, entered that fortress on the following day with 176,000 men and 540 guns. He then abandoned the chief command to Marshal Bazaine.

French  
 Defeat at  
 Worth

Meanwhile, the second German army had reached the Moselle, and was threatening with its advanced troops the roads to Paris. This was unknown to Marshal Bazaine, although he had a large force of cavalry which could have kept him informed of the enemy's movements. He ordered the retreat westward to continue, and his staff made the great error of directing the bulk of the troops to use only one, and that the southernmost, of the two broad chaussees available. At least seventy-two hours would have been necessary to complete the withdrawal from Metz under these circumstances,

French  
 Retreat

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Surrender

Mc Mahon  
WoundedThe  
Emperor  
Surrenders

and the Germans had already placed some cavalry across the road near Mars-la-Tour. On the 16th they were vigorously supported (as was invariably the case in this campaign) by other troops, and succeeded in stopping the westward movement of the French. Next day the latter concentrated on the Gravelotte position, eleven miles in extent. On the 18th the pitched battle of Gravelotte was fought, and resulted in the French being driven back to Metz. Here they were surrounded, and, after several gallant but unsuccessful attempts to break out, surrendered on October 27th.

Thus, within a month, the regular armies of France had been rendered powerless to oppose the German advance. But, in the meantime, the *Gardes Mobiles* had been called out, and, with the remains of Mc Mahon's army, formed at Chalons a body of 120,000 men, with 324 guns, much disorganized, and almost without discipline. With these it was determined to attempt to join hands with Bazaine by a northerly march, which was commenced on August 21, without intelligence reaching the Germans, part of whose second army was again in motion toward Paris. On the 25th the Germans learned, it is said through a telegram in a foreign newspaper, of Mc Mahon's movements, and at once changed the direction of their march so as to intercept him. The effects of want of discipline and contradictory orders had greatly delayed his march, and he was much harassed by the enemy, till finally on the 30th, the 5th corps under De Failly, having encamped near Beaumont without taking the precaution of protecting themselves by a chain of outposts, though it had been engaged the previous day, was surprised, and driven northward on Sedan. Here Mc Mahon collected his dispirited troops, but only to find that the enemy had surrounded him, and by vigorous forward movements had captured the bridges over the Meuse and the commanding positions around the town. A fierce battle commenced early on the first of September by the attack on Bazeilles. This village was captured by the Bavarians and recaptured by the French, and ultimately burned. By noon Mc Mahon had been wounded, and General Wimpffen, as senior officer, had taken command, only to find further resistance hopeless, in spite of the gallant charges of of the French cavalry under General Marguerite, who fell at their head. Nearly 500 guns were playing upon the French, who were crowded into Sedan, and under its walls, and at 5 P. M. the white

flag was hoisted on the citadel. Next day the emperor, who was with the army, surrendered with 83,000 men.

On the 4th, Paris was in rebellion, the senate dissolved, the empress regent a fugitive on her way to England, and France proclaimed a republic amid tumultuous excitement. Before the close of September, Strasburg, one of the last hopes of France, had capitulated, and Paris was completely invested by German troops; and on the 5th of October the Prussian king had taken up his headquarters at Versailles. Gigantic efforts were made to raise armies in the provinces for the relief of Paris. Gambetta, escaping from the city in a balloon, joined the government at Tours, and by his energy got together many thousand armed men. Those under the successive command of Generals d'Aurelles de Paladine, Chanzy, and Bourbaki fought stubbornly on the Loire, and with some slight success, threatening at one time to cut the German line of communications, at another to raise the siege of Belfort. But the surrender of Metz by Bazaine, and consequent re-enforcement of the German armies around Paris, frustrated the first, and the masterly tactics of General von Werder on the Lisaine not only prevented the second, but drove the French troops into Switzerland, where they were disarmed and interned. While these events were occurring in the south and southeast, the Germans, overrunning the north as far as Dieppe, fought a drawn battle with the French levies under General Faidherbe, who perhaps displayed more talent than any other French leader during the campaign. From Paris, where almost every able-bodied man was enrolled in the ranks, frequent sorties were made, and bloody battles fought in the villages to the east and south, Le Bourget, Champigny, Le Hay, Bougival, Rainey, etc., several of which were taken and retaken more than once. The city also underwent a bombardment for several days, from which, however, it suffered little, and it was not till compelled by hunger in January, 1871, after a four-months' investment, that negotiations were opened with the enemy at Versailles. The united efforts of the different branches of the "Provisional Government of Defense," respectively installed at Paris and Tours, then succeeded in bringing about an armistice, and a portion of the investing army entered the city, which had been till then cut off from all communications with the outer world, except by balloons and carrier pigeons, and finally threatened by famine.

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**France  
Pro-  
claimed a  
Republic****Paris  
Sur-  
renders**

## DIVISION III

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## FRANCE

Grevy  
Elected  
President  
of French  
Republic

They remained but a few hours, and with the concurrence of Germany the French nation now proceeded by a general election of representatives to provide for the exigencies of the country.

On the 8th of February elections took place for a national assembly to be held at Bordeaux, to deliberate on the question of peace or war, or rather, to arrange the terms of peace, for the country returned the assembly with that intention. It was a body nominally republican, with strong monarchical leanings, as yet unexpressed; hardly half a dozen Bonapartists were returned to it. Garibaldi was among the deputies elected, though he declined the honor of acting as a Frenchman. The new republican government of France now had M. Grevy as president, and Thiers as chief of the executive power; and it was decided that the assembly should sit at Versailles. The fierce outbreak of the hot republicans of Paris interfered sorely with their peaceful labors. On March 18th the commune of Paris declared itself in opposition to the Versailles republic; the old grudges of artisan Paris once more asserted their unpleasant existence; and Marshal Mc Mahon was instructed by the Versailles Assembly to reduce the insurgent capital. Then followed the second siege of Paris, from April 2 to May 21, with its accompanying horrors, and the gloomy spectacle of street fighting, and the burning and ruin of the public buildings of the town.

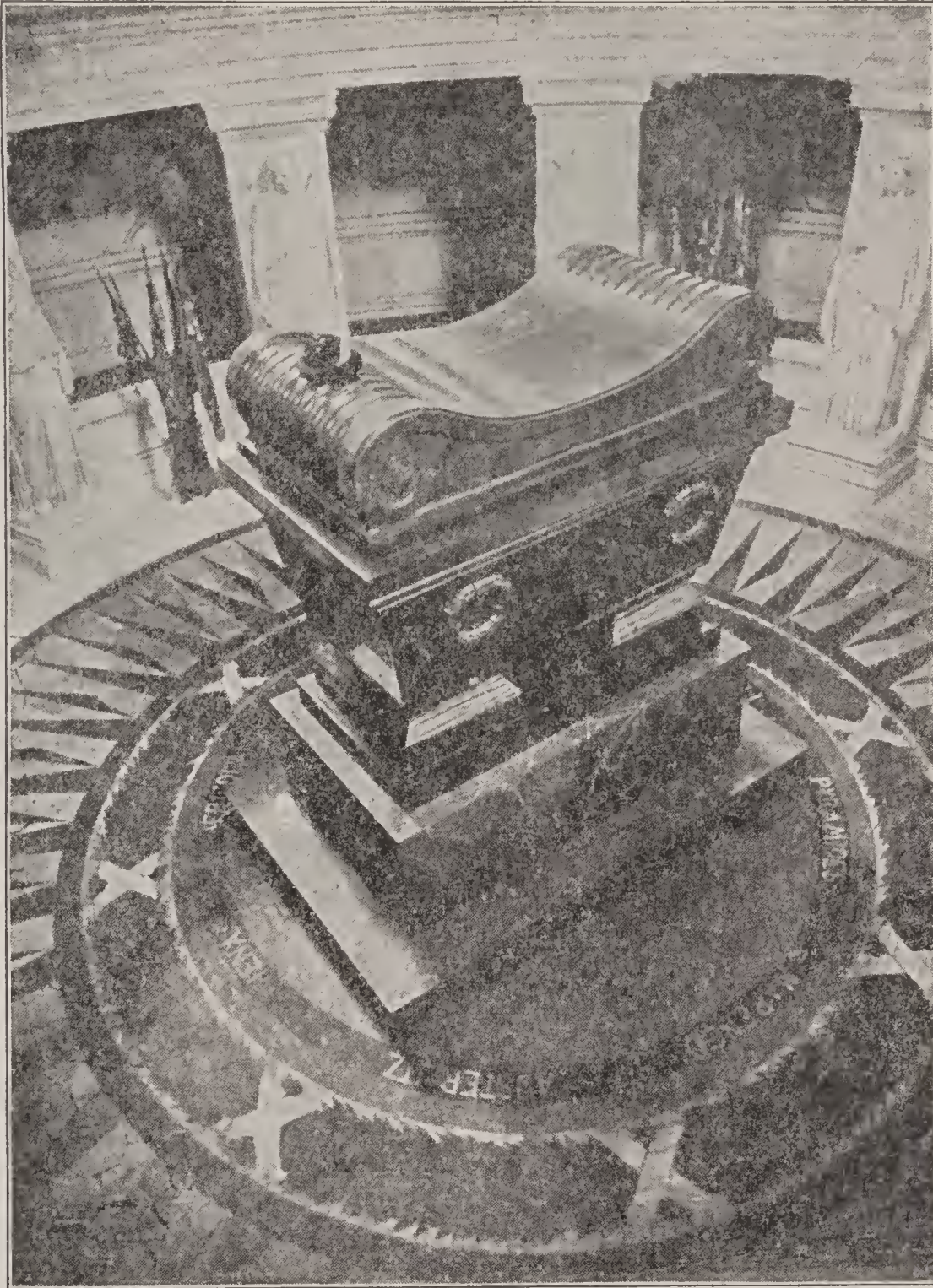
Meanwhile M. Thiers, with infinite toil, and with journeys from court to court of Europe, had at last, by his unwearying activity, succeeded in obtaining a general agreement to terms of peace. The treaty of Frankfort was signed on the 10th of May, 1871; by it Alsace and a large part of Lorraine were ceded back to Germany, while Belfort was restored to France; a huge money indemnity was to be paid to Germany for the costs of the war.

Work of  
the As-  
sembly

The reactionary measures of the Versailles Assembly soon began, timidly at first, to push forward with boldness, if the first steps succeeded. Thus, it suppressed the national guard, in spite of the moderate opposition of M. Thiers; it allowed Orleanist princes and members of the Bonapartist family to enter the assembly; it strengthened its position at Versailles, though it had not the courage to move the government offices thither. Early in 1872 the opposition of the assembly to his financial proposals led to a first

resignation of M. Thiers; only on its earnest and almost unanimous petition did he consent to hold office any longer. Meanwhile the attempts at a fusion between the legitimists and Orleanists failed completely; the efforts of the Bonapartists, led by M. Rou-

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TOMB OF NAPOLEON, HOTEL DES INVALIDES

her, were redoubled; a great organized propaganda was set afoot; newspapers, pamphlets, photographs, bribes for the army and for the government officials, intrigues of every kind, were in motion, in order to create a public opinion on behalf of the emperor and the young prince imperial, as he was still persistently called. The three parties agreed in one thing at least — that they would before

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 Commis-  
 sion of  
 Thirty

long put an end to the republic. At the end of 1872 a commission of thirty was appointed to regulate the arrangement of public powers and duties, and to settle the vexed question of ministerial responsibility. It was composed of a majority of the right, the members of the different anti-republican parties in the assembly. From it sprang the attempts of the assembly to postpone the day of its dissolution, and to frame the government of France in such a way as to secure the defeat of the republic. The weakness of the majority lay in the fact that their union was only negative; and that if they did agree, it was only till they could rid themselves of the republic.

Death of  
 Napoleon  
 III

The death of Napoleon III at Chiselhurst in January, 1873, created little or no feeling in France, and showed that imperialism had small hold on the popular mind. The assembly now decided that it would remove the president from the chamber, because of the great influence which Thiers could always exert on a debate; and, secondly, that it would push back its own dissolution as far as possible. These proposals Thiers accepted rather than run the risk of a collision. When, however, it was announced that, thanks chiefly to the president's exertion, the evacuation of France by the Prussian troops would take place two years sooner than had been originally stipulated, and that the last foreign soldier would march off in September, 1873, the parties of the majority became seriously alarmed; for the life of the assembly had been, by their own admission, connected with the period of continuance of German troops in France. Early in April, 1873, on the resignation of M. Grevy, president of the chamber, they carried their candidate, M. Buffet, against the Thiers government; in May they came to close quarters, and brandishing their favorite weapon, "the red specter," these three reactionary parties defeated Thiers by a majority of sixteen (360 against 344). Then the old minister resigned, and the parties, which had arranged their plans beforehand, at once elected as president Marshal Mc Mahon, the "*honnête homme et soldat*," \* as he styled himself. With him they associated a cabinet of which the head was M. de Broglie. Immediately the functionaries were changed throughout France, and everywhere old Imperialists were put in. At the beginning of 1875 it was agreed that the presidency should be for seven years, and a

Mc Ma-  
 hon  
 Elected  
 President

New  
 Constitu-  
 tion

\* Honest man and soldier.



new constitution,\* with the republican element as much as possible effaced, was set up in February, 1875. Before this M. de

\* Since the overthrow of Napoleon III on September 4, 1870, France has been under a republican form of government, sanctioned in February, 1875, by a constitutional law which has undergone since but slight modifications. The present French constitution remains a mixture of monarchical and republican institutions, and it has fully maintained its strong and old-established centralization.

The unit of French administration is the commune, the size of which varies greatly, and which administers its own local affairs by means of an elected municipal council and an elected mayor. The independence of the communes is very much checked by the central government, but the present tendency of the more advanced municipalities is to take into their own hands the administration of a wide range of affairs formerly considered attributes of the state, while some of them incline more and more toward taking over the solution of important social questions. Every ten to fifteen communes constitute a *canton*, and next comes the *arrondissement*, or district composed of not more than nine *cantons*; this has its own elected council, entrusted with the assessment of the local taxes, and subject to the sub-prefect. Four *arrondissements* on an average compose a department. This division was introduced during the great revolution, when it was found desirable to abolish the old provincial institutions, and to submit the whole of France to a centralized government. Nearly all departments are administrative areas which have received their names from their chief rivers or mountains, but otherwise have no geographical or economical meaning. France had eighty-nine departments before 1870, but now it has only eighty-six, or eighty-seven if the "territory of Belfort" be considered as a separate department (Haut Rhin). Each of them has a "general council," elected by universal suffrage — each *canton* electing one councilor. The general councils have wide powers as regards taxation and the promotion of institutions of public utility; but their decisions are jealously controlled by the prefect, who is the representative of the state in the department.

The legislative functions of the central government are vested in the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate; and the executive power in the ministry and the president of the republic. The chamber is composed of 584 deputies (six for Algeria and ten for the colonies), elected for five years by universal suffrage, in the proportion of at least one deputy for each district, or as many more as the population of the district contains hundreds of thousands of inhabitants. The composition of the senate is more complicated. Under the constitution of 1875, of the 300 senators seventy-five had to be nominated for life by the government; but, by an amendment of the law, these are replaced by election as they die out. Of the remaining 225 seats, a third are filled every third year by means of double elections. Every new law must be voted by both the chamber and the senate, and a congress of both bodies sitting together must be convoked for discussing alterations of the constitutional law.

The ministry is selected from the chamber by the president of the republic, whose powers are, on the whole, very wide. He promulgates the laws voted by the two legislative bodies, he concludes treaties with foreign powers, appoints all functionaries, and has the right of dissolving the chamber with the approval of the senate. There is, moreover, a special body, the council of state (*Conseil d'État*), which dates from the first and second empire, and now has the duty of giving its opinion to the government upon pending legislative schemes.

A formidable army of functionaries stands under the central government, in subjection to the prefects, who themselves are wholly under the authority of the ministry of the

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Broglie had fallen under the ill-will of the monarchial parties, and had been compelled by an adverse vote of the chamber to

interior, and exercise a powerful influence on the results of the elections through their subordinates, as well as by means of various kinds of favors which they are in a position to accord to tradesmen, industrial establishments, and all kinds of private persons.

The names adopted by the sections of the Legislative Assembly in 1791, from the part of the house in which they sat, have, with modifications, been retained in France and extended to parliamentary parties in Germany and other countries. Those sitting on the "Extreme Right" and the "Right" of the president's chair were representatives of the burgher interest, constitutionalists like the Feuillans, and supported the king as far as they could. The "Left" was composed of Girondists, moderate Republicans who favored the constitution as it stood. The "Extreme Left" sat on the higher benches, and was nicknamed the "Mountains;" it comprised representatives of the advanced clubs, Robespierre of the Jacobins, and Danton of the Cordeliers. The "Center" had no definite principles, usually voting with the Left.

The judicial organization maintains many traces of its ancient character, and remains a powerful instrument in the hands of the government in political matters. In each canton there is appointed a justice of peace, who can decide only small civil cases where a value of not more than £8 is involved. Affairs of more importance must be brought before tribunals sitting in each district — all cases involving more than £40 being open to appeal before the appeal courts. In larger cities there are commercial courts and tribunals of prud'hommes elected by the heads of industrial establishments and the workers.

In criminal matters the secrecy of preliminary investigation (instruction) is a distinctive feature of the French judicial organization, and this investigation, conducted by a state functionary, may last for months. No counsel for the defense is admitted till the affair has come before a court. Minor offenses are tried by police courts, and a wide range of crimes, involving imprisonment for many years and the loss of civil rights, are tried by the courts of Police Correctionnelle without a jury. The assize courts are assisted by a jury; but the jurors (from 400 to 3,000 for each department) are chosen from among the citizens over thirty years old by a special committee composed in each canton of the mayor, the justice of the peace, and his deputies; and that commission has the power to exclude any citizen from the list of jurors. These lists are submitted to a further scrutiny by a second district committee, which has the further right of nominating additional jurors to the extent of one tenth of the total number required. From the decisions of all kinds of tribunal appeal may be made to the Court of Cassation.

In the law of France, the act of annulling the decision of a court or judicial tribunal is called *cassation*, from the verb *casser*, "to break or annul;" and the function of cassation, as regards the judgments of all the other courts, is assigned to a special tribunal called the Cour de Cassation, which may thus be regarded, in a certain sense, as the last and highest court of appeal. But as everything is excluded beyond the question whether or not the view taken of the law, and of the proper method of administering it by the inferior tribunal, has been the right one, the idea attached to this institution is less that of a court in the ordinary sense, than of a department of government to which the duty of inspecting the administration of justice is assigned. The demand for cassation can be made only by the parties to the suit, or by the *procureur-général* of the Court of Cassation for the public interest. The whole French jurisdiction — civil, commercial, administrative, criminal, and correctional — may be reviewed by the Court of Cassation, the only exceptions being the judgments of justices of peace (where the amount is less

send in his resignation. He was succeeded by General de Cissey, with what was called, by an inopportune invention, "a business cabinet." The new constitution provided a president with a cabinet, a body which, by being styled "a business cabinet," seemed to make the president's personality all the stronger; then there was a senate of 300 members, of whom seventy-five were life holders, and the rest elected for nine years, renewable by triennial elections of a third at a time; and, lastly, a chamber of deputies to be elected by the country in the usual way.

The time came at last when the chamber, which had been elected to decide on peace or war, and had taken to itself the functions of a constituent assembly, and had framed a new constitution, and had defied public opinion of France, must bring its half-usurped functions to an end. The successive triumphs of Republicans in elections had strengthened them so much that they could now hold their own in the chamber. The president, aware that his strength was going, got rid of the cabinet of Dufaure and Jules Simon, and, trusting to official pressure at a new election, hoping also to work on the old fears respecting the extreme party, the "Irreconcilables" took advantage of an adverse vote, and after having in 1877 adjourned the chamber for a month, eventually dissolved it on June 26, 1877. The Republican party showed extraordinary prudence and moderation under excessive provocation; the influence

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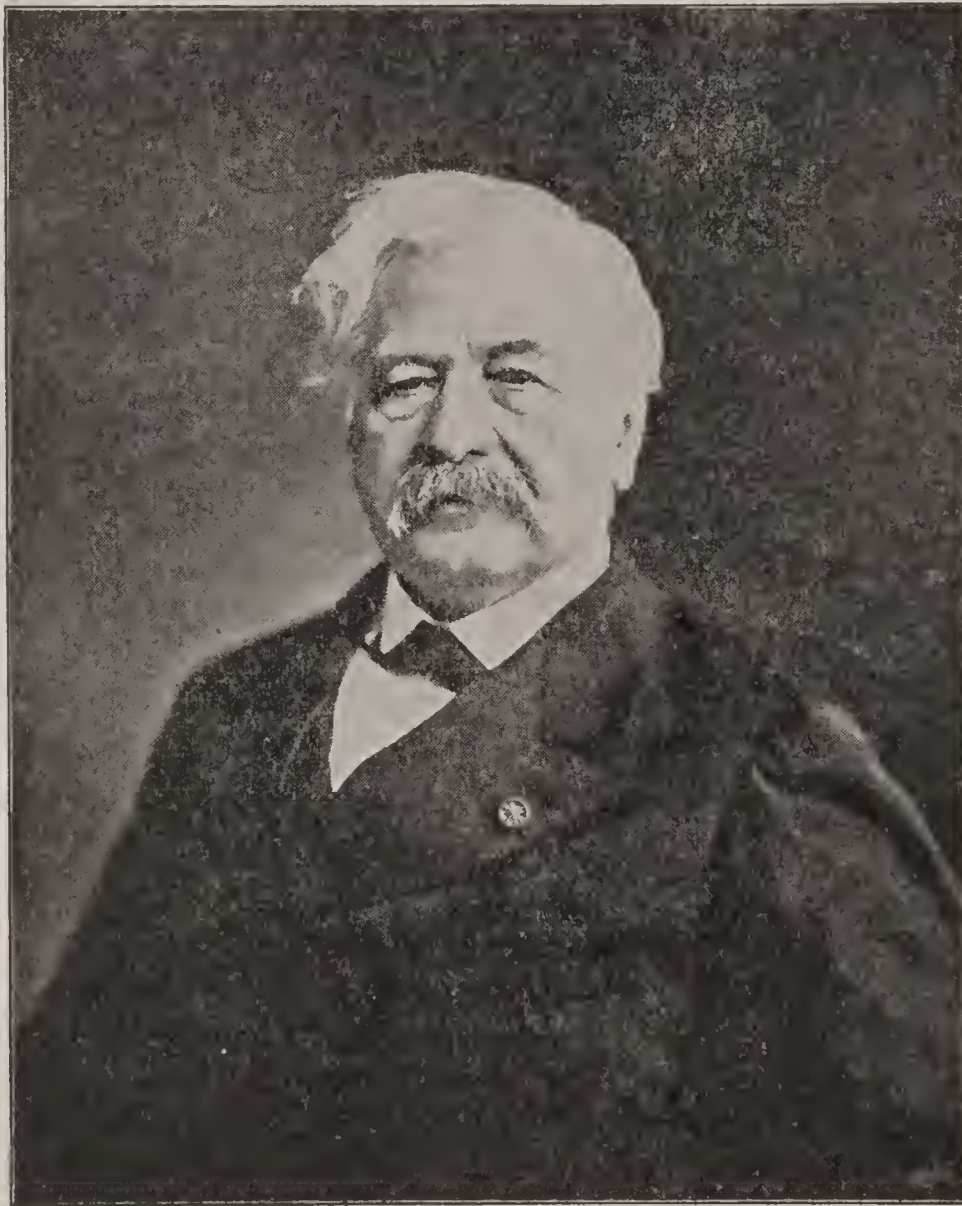
**Chamber  
 Must  
 Come to  
 an End**

than 100 francs), of tribunals of commerce (where the amount is less than 1,500 francs), and of courts-martial, military and naval. These appeals do not involve any stay of execution, and the judgment in cassation is not a judgment on appeal, but merely has the effect of quashing the judgment below. The delay allowed for bringing a civil case before the Court of Cassation is two months for persons domiciled in France; but parties resident out of France have further time. In criminal matters, the procedure is greatly more prompt, three full days only being allowed. In all criminal and police cases the Court of Cassation may pronounce judgment immediately after the expiry of these days, and must do so within a month. Its staff consists of a president and three vice-presidents; forty-nine counselors or ordinary judges; a procureur-général, or public prosecutor; six substitutes, who have the title of advocates-general; and several inferior officers. The judges are appointed by the President of the Republic, and their appointments are irrevocable. The three sections of the court are the *Chambre des Requetes*, the *Chambre Civile*, the *Chambre Criminelle*. The whole court, when presided over by the minister of justice, possesses also the right of discipline and censure over all judges for grave offenses not specially provided for by the law.

The government is represented at each court by a public prosecutor. Separate military and navel courts pronouncing severe judgments in the smallest disciplinary matters complete an organization which has been modified to some extent by the progress of liberal ideas.

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of the great jurists, Dufaure and Grevy, made itself felt, neutralizing all the plots of the reaction, and quietly prolonging the crisis until the country could speak; the "Opportunists," as the followers of Gambetta and Thiers were now styled, united with the "Irreconcilables" in opposition to the "party of order," as the intriguers of the three reactionary groups — Legitimists, Orleanists,



FERDINAND DE LESSEPS

Imperialists — loved to call themselves. In spite of shameless interference with the election, in spite of the unseemly appeal of the president himself, in spite of all the threats of the ancient weapons of reaction, the country was so decidedly republican that even the death of Thiers (September 3, 1877) could not for a moment check the fortunes of his party. His death perhaps even

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strengthened it, for he became the saint instead of being the leader of it. His chequered political career, so long past, was quite forgotten; his memory was revered as that of the statesman who in his old age saved Belfort to France, brought peace, secured the payment of the war indemnity, and relieved the country from the German occupation. All France felt that under his guidance tranquillity had returned, and the timid middle classes had learned to couple prosperity with the republic. And so the elections of 1877 returned a decisive majority for the republicans, now headed by

Grevy and Gambetta; the "Irreconcilables" were not strong in the new chamber; the reactionary parties lost ground; and M. Grevy was at once re-elected president of the chamber. Consequently, the marshal-president, after France had been deeply agitated by rumors of a new *coup d'état*, and by ominous movements of troops, at last gave way, and, honestly if reluctantly, accepted the verdict of the country. The reactionary "Ministry of May 16" fell, and, after a new attempt at a "business ministry," a republican cabinet was formed at last (December 14, 1877), under the presidency of M. Dufaure. By degrees, as the shameless behavior of officials at election after election came to light, the bureaucracy of France began to resume a republican color, by removals of reactionary prefects, by opportune changes of political views, and acquiescence in the loudly pronounced opinion of the nation.

The army, which was far from satisfied with the late government, showed signs of content under the new. In the senate only did the three reactionary parties still possess any power; and even there their majority was so small that they could not venture on serious resistance. The Orleanist section, which, though very weak in numbers, still held the balance, and could give the majority to either side, was timid and moderate, and averse to heroic measures. Their refusal to prolong the crisis by consenting to a second dissolution of the chamber of deputies gave time for the moderate republic to consolidate its powers. The election of January 5, 1879, in which, according to the present constitution of France, one third of the senate had undergone re-election, happily brought that body into harmony with the chamber of deputies and the country. Fresh rumors of trouble had been industriously circulated; the temper of France was, however, so thoroughly tranquil, and so decidedly in favor of a constitutional republic, that the hopes of the reactionary parties were all frustrated.

Gambetta, the eloquent orator and leader of the Republicans, who became after the death of Thiers the paramount political power in France, now led his party into courses of uncertain wisdom. The Communards were rehabilitated; the church was irritated by violent measures; the Tunis expedition was entered upon; public instruction, on the other hand, especially in the primary grade, was greatly developed. To their irritating attacks upon the

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Grevy  
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Orleanist, Legitimist, and Bonapartist parties — representative relics of France's former political states — and upon the Roman Catholic Church — the largest and most united corporate power in the country — the Republicans soon added internal discord, and suffered from their inexperience of parliamentary government. The



SADI CARNOT

true conservative power in France, the body of peasant proprietors, began to include their chosen representatives in their distrust of all politicians. Republican prospects became clouded through Gambetta's accession to the premiership and his failure to keep it; through his death (1882), which left his party without a leader and the people without an idol; through the weakening of French influence in Egypt, owing less to English

action than to the vacillating policy of the ministry (1882); through the Tonquin expedition and embroilments with China, which cost many lives and much treasure without perceptible returns; through accusations of jobbery and malversations brought against M. Grevy's son-in-law, which resulted in a change in the presidency by the resignation of the former, and the election of M. Carnot (1887).

M.  
 Carnot  
 Made  
 President

The election of 1885 showed that the republic had lost ground,

and the infatuation of a large section of the electors for General Boulanger (1887), supported by the reactionary parties in his schemes of personal political aggrandizement, while doing little to unite the broken front of the Republican majority, put in jeopardy the rational, practical, and undoubtedly liberal parliamentary institutions which the third republic had been instrumental in implanting in France.

On the 24th of June, 1894, President Carnot was fatally stabbed by an Italian anarchist at Lyons, and three days later M. Casimir-Perier was elected to succeed the unfortunate executive. On the 15th of January of the next year, Perier resigned, and M. Felix Faure was immediately chosen to take his place.

The "Dreyfus affair" has caused

France much trouble, both in the army and state. It has uncovered a strong popular feeling against the Jews. This celebrated case was started in November, 1894, when Captain Alfred Dreyfus, of the French army, was brought before a court martial on the charge of having revealed important military secrets to a foreign nation. This secret tribunal resulted in his public degradation and exile to the Isle de Diable, off the coast of Guiana.

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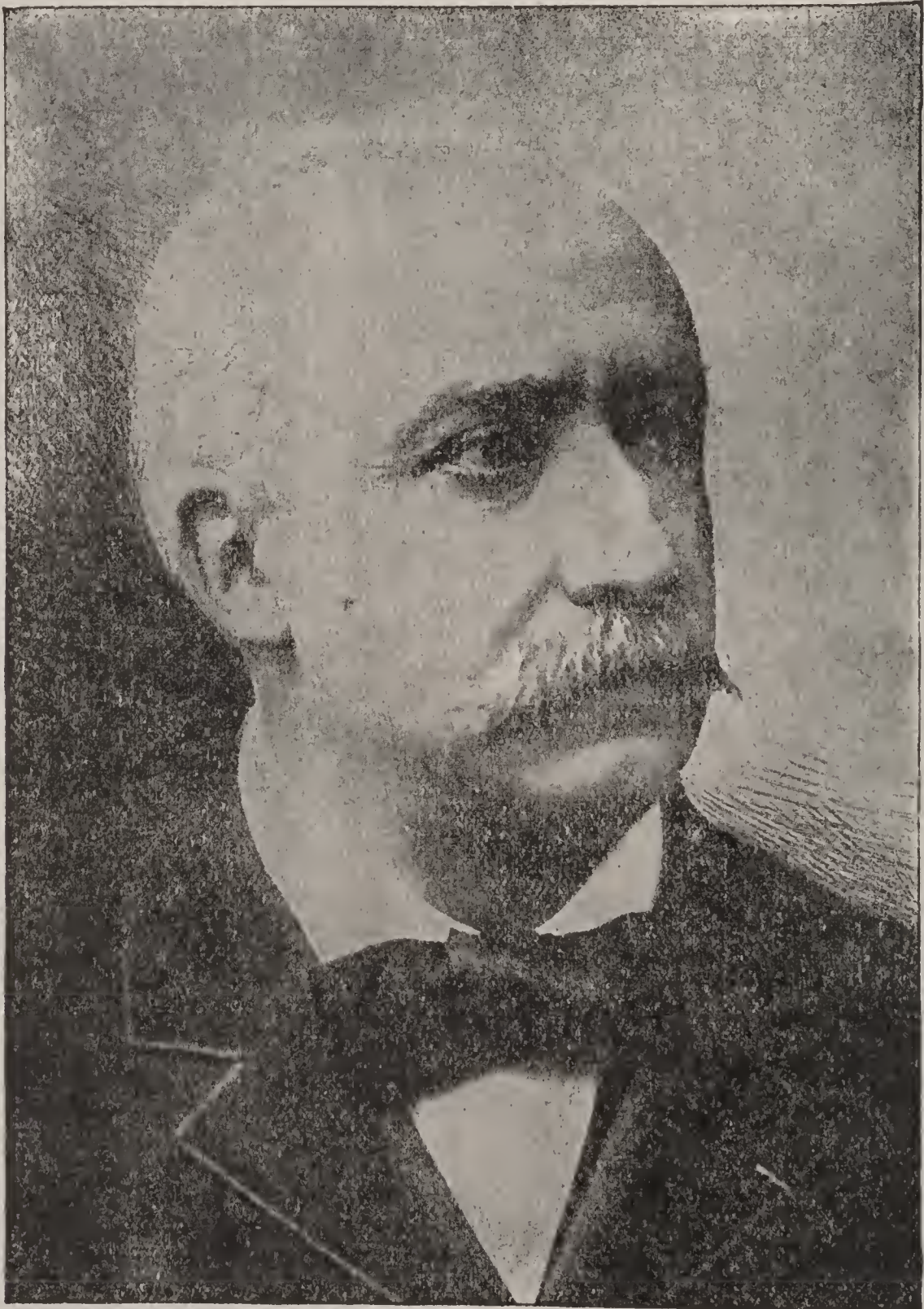


EMILE ZOLA

Dreyfus  
Affair

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At that time it was announced that public disclosure of all the facts in the case would inevitably bring on war with a foreign nation, and this was offered as an excuse for the secrecy maintained by the condemning board. In spite of the assurances of high



FELIX FAURE

People  
 Discredit  
 the  
 Court-  
 Martial

military officials that the evidence of his guilt was conclusive, and the opinion of the court unanimous, the friends of the exiled man, and the public generally, maintained that Dreyfus had been convicted and put out of the way for reasons best known to the



members of the court martial, and not because he had been guilty of treason.

In November of 1897, the brother of Captain Dreyfus charged Major Comte Walsin Esterhazy with having manufactured the evidence which had decided the case before the court martial. At first Esterhazy denied the accusation *in toto*, but later on qualified his denial, and introduced a new element in the scandal—the demi-monde of Paris. Esterhazy was court-martialed January 10, 1898. The trial was nothing but a fiasco, the tribunal allowing the statements of the accused man to go as testimony unchallenged, and permitting no cross-examination. As a result there was a unanimous verdict of acquittal.

At this stage the eminent novelist, Émile Zola, entered the controversy, declaring through the columns of *Aurore*, a French paper, that the whole affair had been conducted illegally and was simply a scheme to give vent to the anti-Semitic feeling existing

against Dreyfus and his fellow Jews. This sensational statement led to a trial of M. Zola and the publisher of the *Aurore*, M. Perreux, on the charge of attacking the honor and honesty of the most sacred institution in France—the army. This trial was even more of a farce than the one by which Esterhazy had been acquitted, the only testimony admitted by the court being such as would tend to support the prosecution. This trial caused many scenes of violence and disorder. It came to an end February 15, and after forty minutes' deliberation the jury returned a verdict of guilty. Zola and Perreux were given the maximum penalty.



M. EMILE LOUBET

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## FRANCE

Jews  
Attacked

By this time all France was aroused with a spirit of partizanship on one side or the other. In the Latin quarter of Paris, at Marseilles, Lyons, and Nantes the Jews were reviled, and in some instances, offered personal violence. In the chamber of deputies any allusion to Dreyfus provoked a storm of charges and counter-charges, and on January 30 resulted in a free fight among the members of that august assemblage. On a legal technicality the counsel for Émile Zola obtained from the court of cassation a quashing of the verdict delivered on February 10. A new trial was instituted in the assize court at Versailles, May 23, 1898, but was adjourned (July 18) on another technicality raised by Zola's counsel. When the second trial was resumed, the counsel for the defendant applied for permission to introduce evidence sustaining his client; this was refused, and Zola and his attorneys let judgment go by default.

Forged  
Evidence  
of  
Colonel  
Henry

August 30 Lieutenant-Colonel Henry confessed the forgery of some of the evidence which had convicted Dreyfus. This caused a public demand for the revision of the now famous "Dreyfus case." It also led to the resignation of General de Boisdeffre on the 31st of August. December 23, 1898, it was announced that the evidence would be laid before civil authorities and the fate of the exiled officer taken from the power of the army.

The president of France, M. Felix Faure, died suddenly as the result of an apoplectic stroke, February 16, 1899. His successor, M. Émile Loubet, was elected two days later.







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